

Controlla-palooza

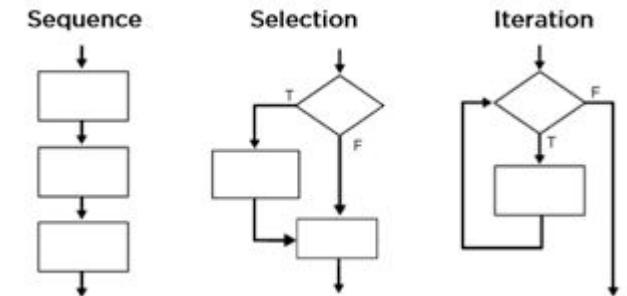
Everything you never learned about how code executes!



Expression
Evaluation



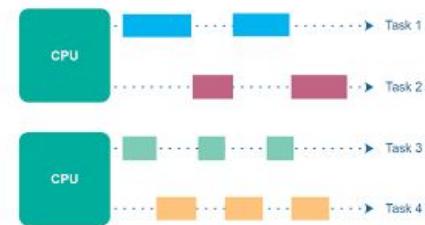
Short
Circuiting



Flow Control



Iterators



Asynchronous
Programming

Expression Evaluation

What's the big picture?



Expressions like
 $f(x) + g(x)$
are evaluated differently by different languages!

For example, does the language evaluate from right to left, left to right, or is there no specified order?

If these function calls don't have side effects, then the order of execution doesn't matter.

But if these functions do have side effects, the order of evaluation of an expression must be considered!

Expressions and Their Evaluation



Expressions

An expression is a combination of **values**, **function calls** and **operations** that, when evaluated, produces an output value.

An expression may or may not have side effects.

Which of the following are expressions?

f(x)*5

if (foo)
cout << "bar";

b = a = 5

a && (b || c)

if a > 5 then a*3 else a*4

Expressions, Associativity and Order of Evaluation

So if f() has a side effect, this could impact the result!

```
int c = 1, d = 2;  
  
int f() {  
    ++c;  
    return 0;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    cout << c - d + f();  
}
```

Challenge: What will these C++ programs print?

Similarly if f() has a side effect, the results can change!

Why? C++ doesn't specify what order the terms of an arithmetic expression must be evaluated!

Nor does it specify what order parameters must be evaluated!

Some languages mandate a left-to-right eval order (C#, Java, JavaScript, Swift), while others don't (Rust, OCaml).

The value of c could be evaluated first...



Challenge: What's the rationale for this?

Either 1 or 0

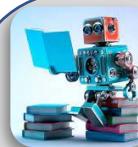
The value of c could be evaluated first!

```
int c = 1;  
  
int f() {  
    ++c;  
    return c;  
}  
  
void h(int a, int b)  
{ cout << a << " " << b; }  
  
int main() {  
    h(c, f());  
}
```

Or perhaps the value of c could be evaluated first!

Either 1 or 0

Expressions, Associativity



Academic Robot Says:
"There are a few exceptions, Carey:

1. Exponentiation is often right-associative: $2^3^2 \square 512$
2. Assignment is right associative: $a = b = c = 5 \square c=5; b=c; a=b;$
3. Unary operators are right associative: $\sim !a \square \sim (\!a)$ "

```
int c = 1, d = ?.
```

```
int f() {  
    ++c;  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    cout << (c - (d) + f());  
}
```

And not this...

So expressions like this
will be evaluated
implicitly like this...

Regardless what order we do the terms are evaluated...

Languages use left-to-right associativity when evaluating mathematical expressions.

Which is the way we all learned to do it in school.

```
int f() {  
    ++c;  
    return c;  
}
```

```
void h(int a, int b)  
{ cout << a << " " << b; }
```

```
int main() {  
    h(c, f());  
}
```

Short Circuiting



Challenge: What will these programs print?

Why? Let's see!

```
int f()
{ cout << "UCLA "; return 5; }

int g()
{ cout << "students "; return 10; }

int h()
{ cout << "are "; return 20; }

int main() {
    if (f() < 10 && g() < 5 && h() > 9)
        cout << "awesome";
}
```

Answer:

UCLA students

```
int f()
{ cout << "CS131 "; return 5; }

int g()
{ cout << "has "; return 10; }

int h()
{ cout << "no "; return 20; }

int main() {
    if (f() < 10 || g() > 5 && h() > 9)
        cout << "rules";
}
```

Answer

CS131 rules

Short Circuiting: How it Works

Consider the expression below:

```
bool cute = true;  
  
if (cute == true || smart == true || rich == true)  
    cout << "Hey, want to go on a date?";
```

If you're either **cute**, or **smart**, or **rich**, then I'd like to go out with you.

Let's say that I happen to know you're **cute**.

Once I know you're cute, I no longer need to waste time asking the other two questions...

Short Circuiting: How It Works

Short circuiting applies to any boolean expression, not just if statements, e.g.,

```
bool result = cute || smart || rich;
```

```
bool cute = false, smart = true;  
if (cute == true || smart == true || rich == true)  
    cout << "Hey, want to go on a date?";
```

This is called **short-circuiting**.

In any boolean expression with AND / OR, most languages will evaluate its **sub-expressions** from left-to-right...

The moment the language finds a condition that **satisfies** or **invalidates** the boolean expression, it will skip evaluating the rest of the sub-expressions.

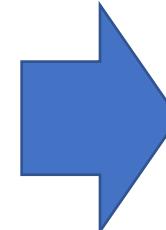
This can dramatically speed up your code!

Short Circuiting... What's Happening?



Short Circuiting is AKA
McCarthy evaluation since John McCarthy
(who invented Lisp and Garbage Collection)
invented the approach.

{



What's Happening

```
if (is_cute())
    date_person();
else if (is_smart())
    date_person();
else if (is_rich())
    date_person();
```

```
if (good_salary() && fun_work() && good_culture()) {
    take_job();
}
```



```
if (good_salary()) {
    if (fun_work()) {
        if (good_culture()) {
            take_job();
        }
    }
}
```

If the user passed in a nullptr, then we abort evaluating the later part of the expression.

Short Circuiting

Here's a typical use of short-circuiting:

```
void assign_letter_grade(CourseResults *ptr) {  
    if (ptr != nullptr && ptr->score > 95)  
        ptr->grade = "A+";  
    ...  
}
```

This code would crash!

```
// without short circuiting  
void assign_letter_grade(CourseResults *ptr) {  
    if (ptr != nullptr) {  
        if (ptr->score > 95)  
            ptr->grade = "A+";  
    }  
    ...  
}
```

We'd have to introduce a second if statement, perhaps with additional nesting of blocks. Yuck!

And just continue following co

This can actually make our code much simpler/less wordy!



Classify That Language: Short Circuiting

```
fun rich(salary: Int): Boolean {  
    if (salary > 200000) return true;  
    print("Not in silicon valley!\n")  
    return false  
}  
  
fun main() {  
    val cute = true; val smart = false;  
    val salary = 200000;  
  
    if (cute == true || smart == true || rich(salary) == true)  
        print("You're my type!\n")  
  
    if (cute == true or smart == true or rich(salary) == true)  
        print("I still want to date you!\n")  
}
```

The code to the left prints out the following:

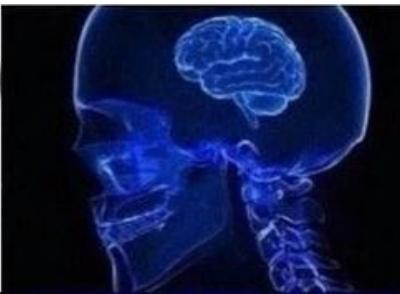
```
You're my type!  
Not in silicon valley!  
I still want to date you!
```

What can we say about how this language implements short circuiting?

This is Kotlin!

Control Statements

IF(THING <= 10)



IF(THING < 11)



IF(THING == 10
OR THING == 9 OR THING
== 8 OR THING == 7 OR
THING == 6 OR THING
== 5 OR THING == 4 OR
THING == 3 OR THING ==
2 OR THING == 1 OR THING == 0)



Control Flow

What's the big picture?



There are three major **categories** of control flow:

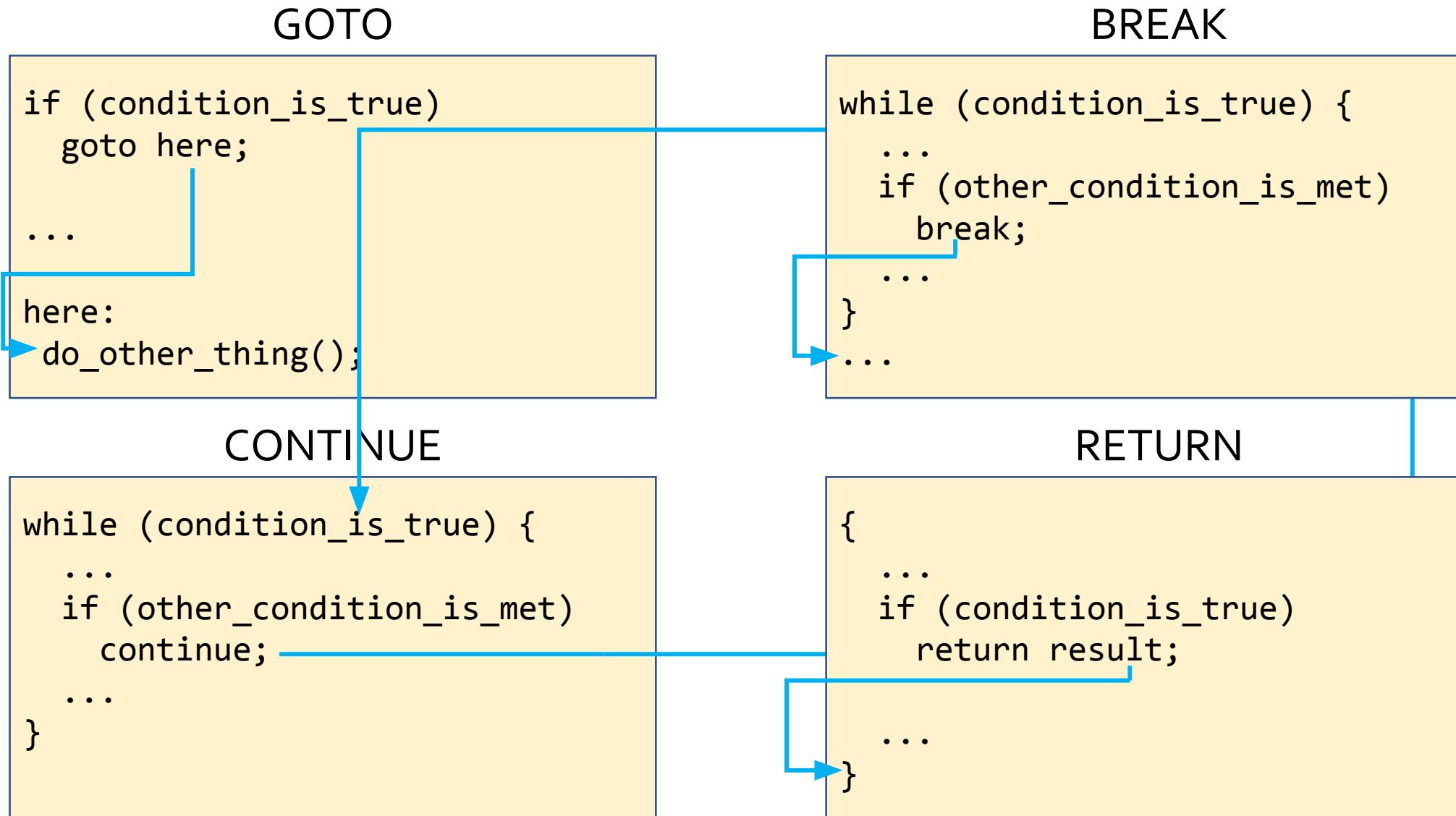
Unconditional Branching Statements:
`goto`, `break`, `return`, and `continue`

Conditional Statements:
`if/else`, `switch`, `guards`, etc.

Loops:
`while`, `do-while`, `for`, `foreach`, etc.

Next, we'll do a quick survey of these control structures,
and learn some interesting variations.

Unconditional Branching Statements



Let's dive a bit into **goto**, **break** and **continue**.

Unconditional Branching: GOTO

```
// C++ goto example using  
// string labels  
int main() {  
    for (int i=0;i<10;++i) {  
        ...  
        if (foo(i)) goto done;  
        ...  
    }  
done:  
    ...  
}
```

A label might
be a string...

One of the earliest flow-control statements was GOTO.

In early programming languages, you could assign names (aka **labels**) to lines in your program.

And then use the **GOTO** statement to transfer control to a specific line based on its label.

```
0  REM GOTO EXAMPLE IN BASIC  
1  REM USING NUMERIC LABELS  
10 PRINT "HELLO WORLD"  
20 GOTO 10
```

Or it might be
numeric

Uncondition

```
// C++ goto example
int main() {
    int i, j;
    cin >> i;
    if (i > 10)
        goto inside;

    for(j=0;j<20;++j) {
        ...
inside:
        cout << j << endl;
    }
}
```



The Linux Kernel written in C
contains roughly 100,000 GOTO
statements!

wned
Why?

EWD215 - 0

A Case against the GO TO Statement.

by Edsger W. Dijkstra

Technological University
Eindhoven, The Netherlands

Since a number of years I am familiar with the observation that the quality of programmers is a decreasing function of the density of go to statements in the programs they produce. Later I discovered why the use of the go to statement has such disastrous effects and did I become convinced that the go to statement should be abolished from all "higher level" programming languages (i.e. everything except -perhaps- plain machine code). At that time I did not attach too much importance to this discovery; I now submit my considerations for publication because in very recent discussions in which the subject turned up, I have been urged to do so.

Unconditional Branching: Break and Continue

In CS31 you learned about the **break** and **continue** statements.



So we won't rehash the details...

But, I bet you didn't know that you can use break and continue with **labels** in some key languages!

Let's see!

Uncle Bob

```
// JavaScript
outer_loop:
for (i = 0; i < 100000; i++) {
    console.log("outer: " + i)
    for (j = 0; j < 100000; j++) {
        console.log("inner: " + j)
        if (j == 2) break outer_loop;
    }
}
console.log("done!")
```

The language finds the loop associated with the label.



Academic Robot Says:

"A growing number of languages including Java, JavaScript, Kotlin and PHP now have labelled breaks and continues!"

```
outer: 0
inner: 0
inner: 1
inner: 2
```

Kotlin

```
@for (i in 1..3) {
    for (r in 1..100) {
        println(r)
    }
} outer
}
println("done!")
```

And then exits every nested loop and continues running the line after the end of the labeled loop.

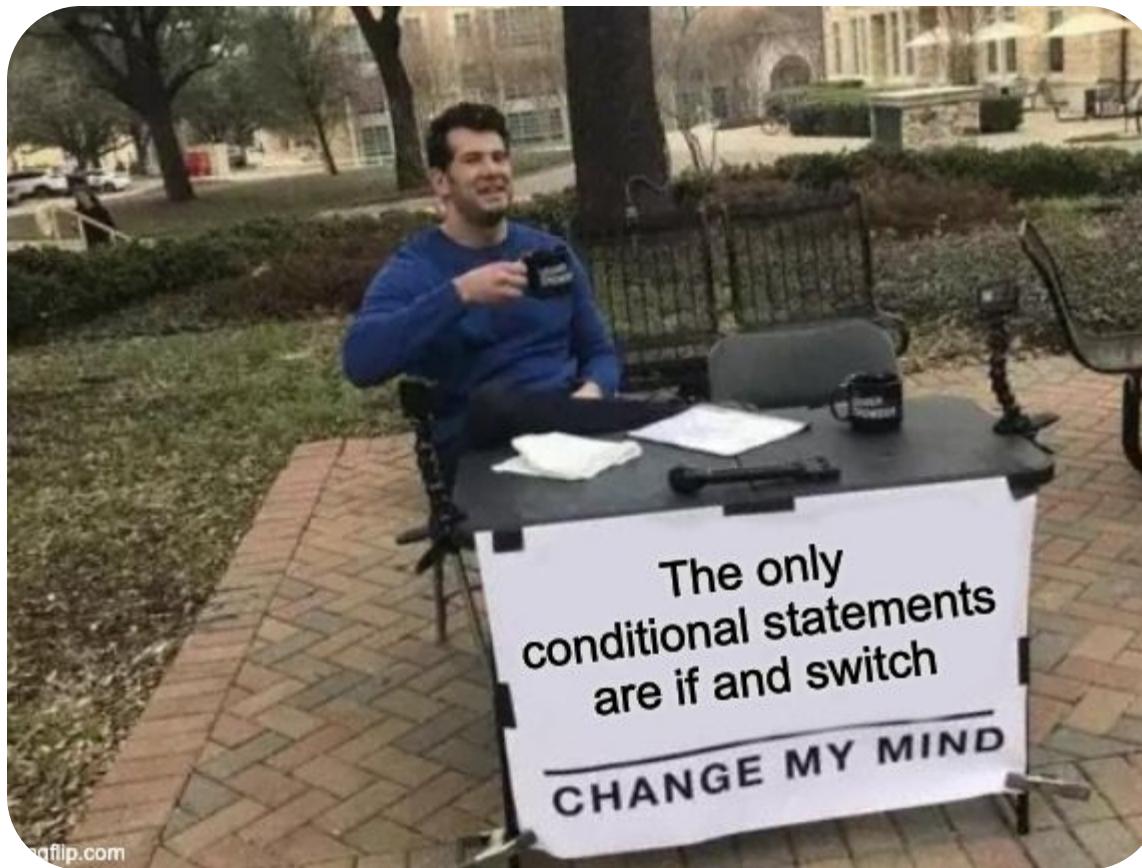
If you hit a labelled continue...

Challenge: What output does this ?

And then immediately breaks out of all inner loops and jumps to the labelled loop for the next iteration.

```
outer: 1
r: 1
r: 3
r: 1
!
```

Conditionals



Conditionals: If Statements

In Fortran, you use line numbers to tell the computer where to go, statements to indicate what to do, and jump to them.

If the condition is true, the program will execute the statements...

If the expression's value was positive, the IF would transfer control to the third line number.

statements...

line from?

statement...

IT WORKED:

```
WRIT(*,*) n is greater than zero'
READ(*,*) n
IF ( n ) 10, 100, 2000
...
10 WRITE (*,*) 'n is less than zero'
...
...
100 WRITE (*,*) 'n is equal to zero'
...
...
2000 WRITE (*,*) 'n is greater than zero'
...
```

It would evaluate the expression between the parentheses...

Fortran

This means that the code you'd execute might be thousands of lines away!

EEK!

Since if statements are uniform across languages, let's learn some related conditionals.

Conditionals: Beyond If Statements

Hopefully you've seen C++'s **conditional operator**:

Here are its semantics: If `bool`

```
// C++, C#, Java, JavaScript, Swift, etc.  
beverage = age < 21 ? "Coke" : "Beer";
```



In Kotlin, this is called the **elvis operator** because if you turn it on its side, it looks like Elvis!

`?:`



```
// Kotlin conditional operator  
beverage = if age < 21 then "Coke" else "Beer"
```

```
// Kotlin  
fun eat_startup_meal(food: String?) {  
    val meal = (food ?: "ramen") + " and redbull"  
    println("Time for dinner, let's have $meal.")  
}
```

```
fun main(args: Array<String>) {  
    // Running out of funding  
    eat_startup_meal(null)  
    // Just raised a round  
    eat_startup_meal("sushi")  
}
```

Time for dinner, let's have

Time for dinner, let's have

```
// C#, JavaScript, Swift, etc.  
meal = food ?? "ramen";
```



Challenge: Here's a related **operator**. What does it do?

This is called the **null coalescing operator**.

`A ?: B` means:

If `A` is not NULL return `A`, else return `B`

Conditionals

```
if (perks == null)
    return null
else if (perks.weekend_meals == null)
    return null
else
    return perks.weekend_meals.breakfast
```

And

Challenge:
output on the



```
// Javascript
function sunday_brunch_at_the_office(perks) {
    var meal = perks?.weekend_meals?.breakfast
    if (meal != null) console.log("Let's eat " + meal)
        else console.log("You're on your own.")
}

sunday_brunch_at_the_office(null)

var menu = {breakfast: "eggs", lunch: "ramen", dinner: "ribs"}
var perks = {weekday_meals: menu}
sunday_brunch_at_the_office(perks)

perks["weekend_meals"] = menu
sunday_brunch_at_the_office(perks)
```

You're on your own.
You're on your own.
Let's eat eggs

This is called the
safe navigation operator.

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

Everyone loves the **switch statement**...

```
cout << "Enter a number b  
cin >> n;  
switch (n) {  
    case 1:  
        cout << "Running code for case 1";  
        break;  
    case 2:  
        cout << "Running code for case 2";  
        break;  
    case 3:  
        cout << "Running code for case 3";  
        break;  
    case 4:  
        cout << "Running code for case 4";  
        break;  
}
```

This is Fortran's equivalent of a switch statement!

If **n** is out of range, then execution continues here!

Then it jumps to that line to run the instructions there.

Since there are 4 line numbers here...

Let's see what its ancestor looked like...

You guessed it – it's from Fortran!

```
WRITE (*,*) 'Enter a # between 1-4:'  
READ (*,*) n  
GO TO ( 10, 25, 50, 100 ), n  
...  
10 WRITE (*,*) 'Running code for case 1'  
...  
25 WRITE (*,*) 'Running code for case 2'  
...  
50 WRITE (*,*) 'Running code for case 3'  
...  
100 WRITE (*,*) 'Running code for case 4'  
...
```

It was janky, but it worked...

Fortran expects this value to be between 1-4

When the code reaches this line, this **variable** is used to select one of these line numbers.

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

Ok, let's briefly review switch's C++ syntax/semantics, then see variations from different languages.

```
// C++ switch statement

int drinks = 4;

switch (drinks)
{
    case 1:
    case 2:
    case 3:
        cout << "I'm chillin!\n";
        break;
    case 4:
        cout << "I'm lit!\n";
        cout << "Life is good!\n";
    default:
        cout << "puke!\n";
        break;
}
```

We can have multiple cases together, but they must be listed one per line.
No semicolons are required for

All cases must be constant char/int/enum values.

If you don't include a **break** statement, the program keeps running until you hit one.

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

```
// C++ switch statement  
  
int drinks = 4;  
  
switch (drinks)  
{  
    case 1:  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        cout << "I'm  
        break;  
    case 4:  
        cout << "I'm lit!\n";  
        cout << "Life is good!\n";  
    default:  
        cout << "I'm lit!\n";  
        break;  
}
```

You can have
non-scalar values
for your labels.

You don't need break to
prevent fall-through.

Oh, and BTW, Swift's switch must be
exhaustive, or have a **default** case for
it to compile!



Challenge: This Swift code produces the
following output. How does Swift's switch
differ from C++'s?

```
// Swift  
var name = "Paul"  
  
switch name {  
    case "Carey":  
        print("Haskell is easiest")  
        print("Smalltalk is confusing")  
    case "Paul", "Todd":  
        print("OCaml is lit!")  
    default:  
        print("Fortran rocks!")  
}
```

Ocaml is lit!

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

```
// C++ switch statement  
  
int drinks = 4;  
  
switch (drinks)  
{  
    case 1:  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        cout << "I'm chillin!\n";  
    case 4:  
        cout << "Life is good!\n";  
    default:  
        cout << "puke!\n";  
        break;  
}
```

You can use ranges for labels.

Break is not needed at the end of each case block.

We use "else" instead of default.



Challenge: What are all the ways Kotlin's switch statement differs from C++'s?

```
// Kotlin  
var drinks: Int = 4;  
  
when (drinks) {  
    in 1..3 -> println("I'm chillin")  
    4 -> {  
        println("I'm lit!")  
        println("Life is good!")  
    }  
    else -> println("puke!");  
}
```

We need braces to have multiple statements.

I'm lit
Life is good!

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

```
// C++ switch statement  
  
int dri  
switch  
{  
    case 1:  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        cout << "I'm lit!\n";  
        break;  
    case 4:  
        cout << "Life is good!\n";  
    default:  
        cout << "puke!\n";  
        break;  
}
```

You can match against strings, lists, and dictionaries.

There's no break statement needed to prevent fall-thru.

Challenge: What are all the ways Python's switch differs from C++'s?

```
def greet(x):  
    match x:  
        case 'person':  
            print('Hi person!')  
        case [p1, p2]:  
            print(f'Hi {p1} and {p2}!')  
        case {'name': n, 'age': a}:  
            print(f"Welcome {n}, you're {a}")  
        case p if 'berg' not in p:  
            print(f'Hello, {p}!')  
        case p:  
            print(f'Go {p}!')  
  
greet('Bjarne')  
Hello, Bjarne!
```

You can pattern match and refer to variables from the pattern!

You can place conditions on your matches.

Conditionals: Multi-way Selection

```
// C++ switch statement  
  
int dr:  
switch {  
    case 1:  
    case 2:  
    case 3:  
        cout << "I'm chillin\n";  
        break;  
    case 4:  
        cout << "I'm lit!\n";  
        cout << "Life is good!\n";  
    default:  
        cout << "puke!\n";  
        break;  
}
```

The cases are each boolean expressions – the first one that matches runs.



Challenge: Go has traditional switch statements, and also this form. How does this version differ from C++'s?

```
var drinks int = 1  
var dessert = false  
  
switch {  
    case drinks < 3:  
        print("I'm chillin\n")  
    case drinks < 5 && !dessert:  
        print("I'm lit!\n")  
    default:  
        print("puke!\n")  
}
```

I'm chillin

This one's more like guards from functional languages!



Classify That Language: Conditionals

```
func classify(eyes int) {  
    switch eyes {  
        case 1:  
            fmt.Println("Copepod")  
        case 8:  
            fmt.Println("Spider")  
        case 3:  
            fmt.Println("Tuatara")  
        case 0:  
            fmt.Println("Star-nosed Mole")  
            fallthrough  
        default:  
            fmt.Println("Freak!")  
    }  
  
    func main() {  
        classify(1)  
        classify(0)  
    }  
}
```

What do you think the program on the left prints out?

Copepod
Star-nosed Mole
Freak!

In this language, each case breaks automatically when reaching the next case statement!

You must use *fallthrough* to allow one case to fall through to the next.

This is (also) Go!

Iteration (aka Looping)



Looping/Iteration

What's the big picture?



Loops come in three major forms:

Counter-controlled

```
for i in range(1,10):  
    do_something()
```

Condition-controlled

```
while (condition):  
    do_something()
```

Collection-controlled

```
for (x in container):  
    do_something(x)
```

Both collection-controlled (and often)
counter-controlled loops rely upon **iterators** under the
hood.
Let's see!

History

- How did the first high level language work?



Ada Lovelace, 1815-1852, was the first person to describe the concept of looping - for Babbage's Analytical Engine.

Answer: Fortran used **IF** and **GOTO** statements to loop!

```
N = 10
I = 0
100   P = N - I
      IF (P), 200, 200, 101
101   ... statements to run in loop
      I = I + 1
      GO TO 100
200   ... statements after loop
      ... statements after loop
```

Let's

Perl provides an anonymous name of `_` for the iteration value.

```
# Perl
for (0..9)
    print("$_\n");
}
```

In Ruby, numbers appear to be objects, and have an `upto(n)` method!

```
// Kotlin
for (elem : Int)
    { println("$elem") }
// Or this:
(0..9).forEach(
    { elem -> println("$elem") })
```

```
// PHP
foreach (range(0,9) as $i) {
    echo $i, " ";
}
```



What interesting things do you notice about these approaches?

Control structures

This range notation creates an object that has a method called `for_each()`.

We specify a lambda function with a single argument to `for_each()`!

```
// Rust
for elem in 0..10 {
    println!("{} ", elem);
}
// Or this:
(0..10).for_each(|elem| println!("{} ", elem));
```

Some languages have an inclusive range `[A,B]` and others do not `(A,B)`.

```
# Ruby
(0..9).each do |elem|
    print elem, " "
end
# Or this:
0.upto(9)
{ |elem| print elem, " " }
```

```
// Go
for i := 0; i < 10; i++ {
    fmt.Println(i)
}
```

```
// Swift
for elem in 0...9 {
    print(elem)
}
// Or this:
(0...9).forEach
{ elem in print(elem) }
```

Collection-~~Control~~

Let's see how a variety of languages

```
# Perl
@items = ("fee", "fi", "fo", "fum");

foreach $elem (@items)
{ print "$elem\n"; }
```

```
# Ruby
items = ["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]

items.each do |elem|
  print(elem, "\n")
end
```

```
// Kotlin
var items = arrayOf("fee", "fi", "fo", "fum")
for (elem in items) println(elem)

// Or this:
items.forEach{ elem -> println("$elem") }
```

Many languages have similar to C++'s:

```
for (type elem: items) { ... }
```

over items in a collection!

```
// Rust
let items = vec!["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]

for elem in items
{ println!("{} ", elem) }

// Or this:
items.iter().for_each(|elem| println!("{} ", elem));
```

The other approach is to use a
collection.`for_each`{run code}

We provide `for_each()` with a
lambda or block of code.

```
// Swift
let items = ["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]

for elem in items { print(elem); }

// Or this:
items.forEach { elem in print(elem) }
```

```
// PHP
$items = array("fee", "fi", "fo", "fum")

foreach ($items as $elem)
{ echo("$elem\n"); }
```

What interesting things do you
notice about these approaches?

What about While/Do-While Loops?



This evaluates to a Boolean...

Then we call Boolean's
whileTrue method.

OK... May I get Smalltalk!

```
" Smalltalk whileLoop "
number := 10.
[ number > 0 ] whileTrue:
[ Transcript print: number; nl.
  number := number - 1 ]
```

And pass in a lambda (with no arguments) to run.

Alright, enough with basic loops – let's discuss how iteration actually works!

How Does Iteration Actually Work?

We just saw how languages let us use simple looping syntax to iterate through **iterable objects** like **lists**, **vectors** and **ranges**.

So how does this iteration actually work under the hood?

These kinds of loops are implemented using "iterators"

```
for n in student_names:  
    print(n)
```

```
for i in range(0,10):  
    print(i)
```

Loops like these are built using **first-class functions**

```
fruits.forEach  
{ f -> println("$f") }
```

Let's dive into each of these approaches.

Iterators

An **iterator** is an object that enables enumeration of a sequence of values.

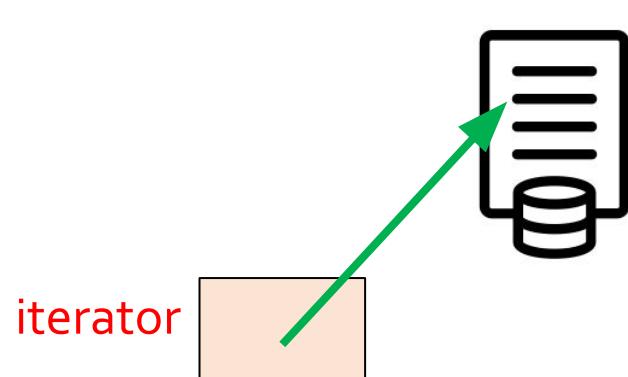
An iterator provides a way to access the values of a sequence without exposing the sequence's underlying implementation.

An abstract sequence is one where the values in the sequence aren't stored anywhere, but generated as they're retrieved via the iterator

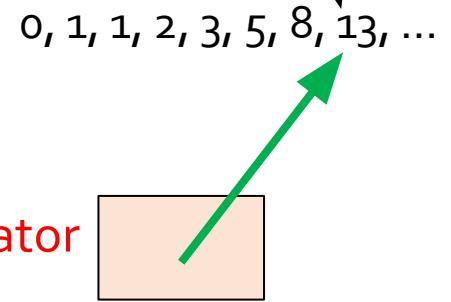
Iterators can be used to enumerate the values held in a **container** (e.g., a list, set)



Iterators can be used to enumerate the contents of **external sources** like data files



Iterators can be used to enumerate the values of an **abstract sequence**

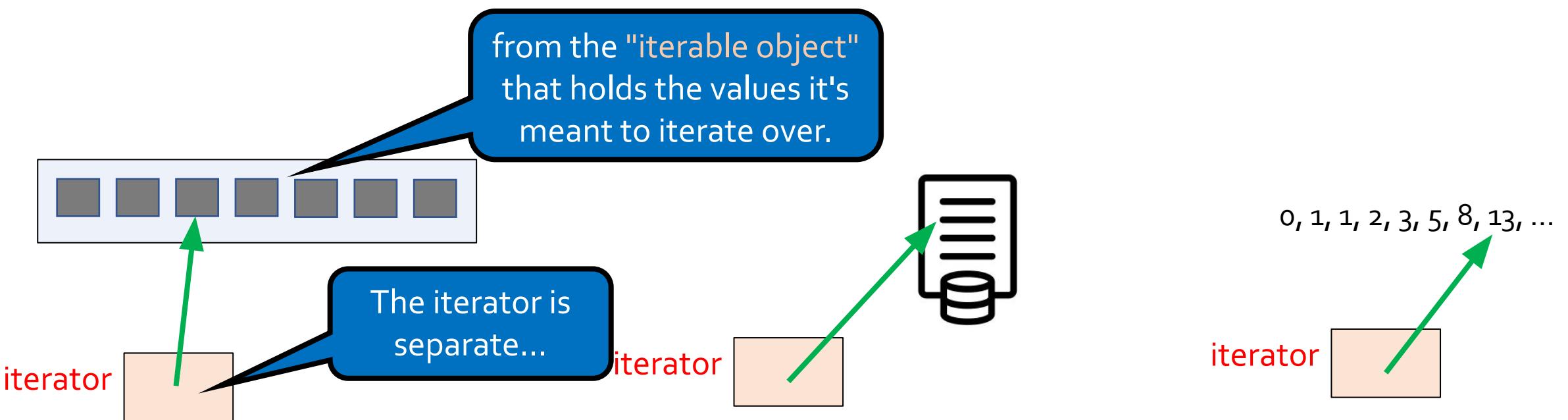


Iterators

Iterators used with [containers](#) and [external sources](#) are typically distinct objects from the sequences they refer to.



Why do we separate the **iterator** from the **iterable object** that actually holds the sequence?



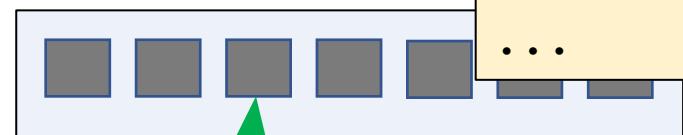
Iterators

To create an iterator, you must ask the "iterable object" that **holds/defines** your sequence to **give one to you**.

```
// Kotlin: iterator into container  
val numbers = listOf(10,20,30,42)  
  
val it = numbers.iterator()  
...
```

```
// Swift: abstract sequence  
var range = 1...1000000  
  
var it = range.makeIterator()  
...
```

```
// C++  
vector<string> fruits = {"apple", "pear", ... };  
  
auto it = fruits.begin();  
...
```



iterator

iterator



0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...

iterator



Iterators

* C++ being a notable exception 😊

While iterators differ by language, most* tend to have an interface that look like one of these:

For Containers and External Sources

`iter.hasNext():`

Are there more value(s) pointed to by his iterator (or after it)?

`iter.next():`

Get the value pointed to by the iterator and advance the iterator

```
// Kotlin:  
val numbers = mutableListOf<Int>(1, 2, 3)  
  
for (int v : numbers) {  
    System.out.println(v);  
}  
  
// Java:  
List<String> fruits = Arrays.asList("apple", "pear", ...);  
  
for (String fruit : fruits) {  
    System.out.println(fruit);  
}
```

For Abstract Sequences

`iter.next():`

Generates and returns the next value in the sequence,

OR indicates the sequence is over
via a `return code/exception`

`// C++ has unusual iterator syntax!`

```
vector<string> fruits = {"apple", "pear", ...};  
  
for (auto it = fruits.begin(); it != fruits.end(); ++it)  
    cout << *it;
```

sequence
00000

```
var it = range.makeIterator()  
while true {  
    var v = it.next()  
    if (v == nil) { break }  
    print(v)  
}
```

Iteration

When you loop over the items in a list,
secretly uses an **iterator** to do it!



Academic Robot Says:

"This is a fantastic example of
Syntactic Sugar!"

```
// Kotlin: iterate over list of #s
val numbers = listOf(10,20,30,42)

for (v in numbers) {
    println(v)
}
```

```
val numbers = listOf(10,20,30,42)

val it = numbers.iterator()
while (it.hasNext()) {
    val v = it.next()
    println(v)
}
```

```
// Swift: iterate over range
for v in 1...1000000 {
    print(v)
}
```

```
var range = 1...1000000

var it = range.makeIterator()
while true {
    var v = it.next()
    if (v == nil) { break }
    print(v)
}
```

How Are Iterators Implemented?

There are two primary approaches for creating iterators:

With Traditional Classes

An iterator is an object, implemented using regular OOP classes.

"True Iterators" aka Generators

An iterator is implemented by using a special type of function called a generator.

```
class OurIterator:  
    def __init__(self, arr):  
        self.arr = arr  
        self.pos = 0  
  
    def __next__(self):  
        if self.pos < len(self.arr):  
            val = self.arr[self.pos]  
            self.pos += 1  
            return val  
        else:  
            raise StopIteration  
  
class ListOfStrings:  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.array = []  
  
    def add(self, val):  
        self.array.append(val)  
  
    def __iter__(self):  
        it = OurIterator(self.array)  
        return it
```

To create the iterator, we need to pass in the private array it's going to implement an iterator object.

Our iterator then initializes its position to the start of the array.

When the iterator hits the end, `__next__()` throws an exception.

Ok, first let's define our container class.

Our iterator class must have a method called `__next__()` that takes the iterator, accesses the value of the item pointed to by the iterator, and returns the value.

Python uses the exception to determine when the loop is complete.

```
nerds = ListOfStrings()  
nerds.add("Carey")  
nerds.add("David")  
nerds.add("Paul")  
  
for n in nerds:  
    print(n)
```

Once we finish, we can use this syntax to iterate over our list!

```
import java.util.Iterator;  
  
class ListOfStrings implements Iterable<String> {  
    private String[] array;  
    private int numItems = 0, maxSize = 100;  
  
    public ListOfStrings()  
    { array = new String[maxSize]; }  
    public void add(String val)  
    { array[numItems++] = val; }  
    @Override public Iterator<String> iterator()  
    {  
        Iterator<String> it = new OurIterator();  
        return it;  
    }  
  
    class OurIterator implements Iterator<String> {  
        private int iteratorIndex = 0;  
        @Override public boolean hasNext()  
        { return iteratorIndex < numItems; }  
        @Override public String next()  
        { return array[iteratorIndex++]; }  
    }  
}
```

Let's define a container of Strings class (like a vector)!

To be **iterable**, it must implement Java's **Iterable** interface.

Our class
item

will have a list of strings

public void testOurList() {
 ListOfStrings nerds =

new ListOfStrings();

nerds.add("Carey");

nerds.add("David");

nerds.add("Paul");

Iterator it = nerds.iterator();

while (it.hasNext()) {

String value = (String)it.next();

System.out.println(value);

return
iterator

If we like, we can use the iterator notation explicitly...

Or Java can use its syntactic sugar for us, and let us use built-in iteration syntax!

Since OurIterator is a nested class, it can access the members of the outer class (ListOfStrings).

Let's Implement a Range Class in Python

```
class OurIter: # iterator
    def __init__(self, start, end):
        self.cur = start
        self.end = end

    def __next__(self):
        if self.cur < self.end:
            val = self.cur
            self.cur += 1
            return val
        else:
            raise StopIteration()

class OurRange: # iterable class
    def __init__(self, end):
        self.end = end

    def __iter__(self):
        iter = OurIter(0, self.end)
        return iter
```

As before, when we reach the end of the range, we raise an exception.

Now let's see our iterator class!

Its constructor sets the current position (cur) to the start of the range, and remembers the end.

And then it advances to the next value in the range.

Our constructor simply stores away the upper-end of the range.

Now let's implement a Range class and its iterator!

```
for i in OurRange(5): # from [0,5)
    print(i)
print("Done!")
```

Now let's see our iterator class.

```
def __init__(self, end):
    self.end = end

    def __iter__(self):
        iter = OurIter(0, self.end)
        return iter
```

True:
iter.__next__()

__iter__ method that to get a new iterator.

Finally, here's what the syntactic sugar is hiding!

How Are Iterators Implemented?

With Traditional Classes

An iterator is an object, implemented using regular OOP classes.

"True Iterators" aka Generators

An iterator is implemented by using a special type of function called a generator.

Generator Chair

So what's a generator?
Let's find out!

```
def foo(n):  
    for i in range (1, n):  
        print(f'i is {i}')  
    pause  
    print('woot!')
```

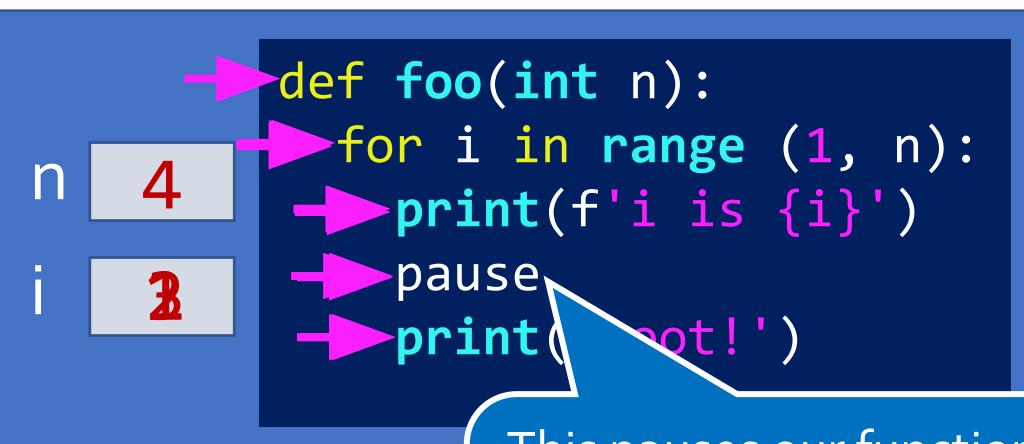
```
def main():  
    p = create_pausable(func=foo, n=4)  
    print('CS')  
    start(p)  
    print('is')  
    resume(p)  
    print('cool!')  
    resume(p)
```

p

This creates a closure for
function, starting
in a paused state.

This starts running
our paused function.

This resumes our
paused function.



Consider the state
left, written

What do you think this will print?

CS
i is 1
is
woot!
i is 2
cool!
woot!
i is 3

Generators

Our `foo()` function is called a "generator."

A generator function can be **paused** and **resumed**, with its state (variables, instruction pointer) saved between calls!

```
def foo(n):  
    for i in range (1, n):  
        print(f'i is {i}')  
        yield  
        print('woot!')
```

In Python, you create a generator object by simply calling the generator function with its parameters.

```
def main():  
    p = foo(4)  
    print('CS')  
    next(p)  
    print('is')  
    next(p)  
    print('cool!')  
    next(p)
```

We start our generator by calling `next()`. Even though you're calling it like a function, this really creates an iterator/closure for the function.

See the real syntax in Python now.

Generator Challenge, Part 2

```
def bar(a, b):  
    while a > b:  
        yield a  
        a -= 1  
  
f = bar(3, 0)  
print('Eat prunes!')  
t = next(f)  
print(t)  
t = next(f)  
print(t)  
t = next(f)  
print(t)  
print(f'Explosive diarrhea!')
```

This not only pauses the generator, but outputs the value.

The initial call to the generator returns an iterator, implemented using a closure.

So every time we call `next()`, we're asking the iterator to generate the next value in the sequence.

The statement

`t = next(f)`

then goes

Each call to `next()` resumes the generator until we hit the next `yield`.

This generator uses `yield` in a slightly different way.

What do you think this will print?

Eat prunes!

1

Explosive diarrhea!

This is a more idiomatic use of a generator – they're used to "generate" a sequence of values that can be retrieved one at a time – the sequence might be **finite**, or **infinite**!

Looping Over



Academic Robot Says:

"A generator function may be called a true iterator, but it's really an iterable object!"

```
def our_range(a, b):  
    while a > b:  
        yield a  
        a -= 1
```

Iterable object

That's LIT!

Since a generator is an iterable object,
and produces an iterator...

```
print('Eat prunes!')  
for i in our_range(3, 0):  
    print(i)  
    if i == 0:  
        print('Positive diarrhea!')
```

An iterator!

Answer: When the generator finally
exits without a yield, this signals
to Python that the loop should end.
How does Python know when
the loop should end?

You can use it like any other
iterable object in loops!

Another name for a generator
function is a "true iterator."

Generators in Different Languages

```
// JavaScript
gen = function*(n) {
  yield 'I';
  yield 'want';
  yield n;
  yield 'cookies';
};
```

```
g = gen(10);
while (true) {
  r = g.next();
  if (r.done) break;
  console.log(r.value);
}

for (word of gen(3)) {
  console.log(word);
}
```

This is a generator that generates an infinite sequence!

How do we use our iterator? It's simple: it reaches a `yield`.

This creates an iterator for your generator (the iterator uses a closure).

The iterator either holds a **value** or a **status** indicating the sequence is over.

Here's how we use the generator in a loop.

Here's how we get the generator.

```
// Kotlin
fun vals(start: Int) = sequence {
  var i = start
  while (true) {
    yield(i)
    i++
  }
}
```

In Kotlin, a generator is called a "sequence."

```
(args: String) {
  val r = valReader(args)
  var count = 0
  (count..7).map { i ->
    var n = iterator.next()
    println(n)
  }
}
```

```
for (n in vals("Hello").take(7)) {
  println(n)
} // Prints: Hello, want, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
```

`take(n)` allows us to get only the first **n** values of the infinite sequence!

Here's how we get the next value.

Let's see some generators in different languages.

Iterator Objects and Generators



Python's comprehensions are implemented using generator functions!

```
iter = (y*y for y in range(3,10))
```

What you can't do with a generator, and visa-versa?

Why would you prefer iterating using a generator vs. iterating over a list of the same size?

```
for i in range(1,10000000):
    print(i)
    if some_condition(i) == True:
        break
```

```
lst = [1, 2, 3,..., 10000000]
for i in lst:
    print(i)
    if some_condition(i) == True:
        break
```

Which is easier: Creating the code for an iterator object or a generator so they can do an in-order traversal of a BST? Bonus: Try to write either one in one minute!

How Does Iteration Actually Work?

Alright, enough of iterators!

Let's see how to iterate with first-class functions.

These kinds of loops are implemented using "iterators"

```
for n in student_names:  
    print(n)
```

```
for i in range(0,10):  
    print(i)
```

Loops like these are built using first-class functions

```
fruits.forEach  
{ f -> println("$f") }
```

Iteration with First Class Functions

Earlier we saw the following type of looping:

```
// Rust  
(0..10).for_each(|elem| println!("{}", elem));
```

```
let items = vec!["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"];  
items.iter().for_each(|elem| println!("{}", elem));
```

```
// Kotlin  
(0..9).f
```

```
var items = ["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]  
items.forEach{ elem -> println("$elem") }
```

In many languages, an iterable object will have a `forEach()` or `each()` method.

The method will apply the passed-in function to each of the iterable's values.

```
# Ruby  
(0..9).each do |elem|  
  print elem, " "
```

```
fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]  
do |elem|  
  print(elem, "\n")  
end
```

With this syntax, we're NOT using an iterator!

Instead, we're passing a **function** as an argument to a `forEach()/each()` method that loops over the iterable's items!

```
// Swift  
(0...9).forEach  
  { elem in print(elem) }
```

```
let items = ["fee", "fi", "fo", "fum"]  
items.forEach { elem in print(elem) }
```

Ruby's syntax is a bit weird...
But while this looks like a block,
it's the same as a lambda!

Iteration with First Class Functions

Let's build a `forEach()` method for our earlier Python container:

```
class ListOfStrings:  
    def __init__(self):  
        self.array = []  
  
    def add(self, val):  
        self.array.append(val)  
  
    def forEach(self, f):  
        for x in self.array:  
            f(x)  
  
yummy = ListOfStrings()  
... # add items to yummy  
  
def like(x):  
    print(f'I like {x}')  
  
yummy.forEach(like)
```

Of course, we don't need to pass a `lambda` – we can also pass a regular function.

As you can see, an iterator is not used for this syntax!
Instead, the iterable object iterates over its own items, and calls the provided `f()`.

This is essentially a `map()` operation like we saw in functional programming!



Iterating With First-class Functions

What are the pros/cons of using `forEach()` + a first-class function vs. an iterator?

What happens if you delete an item from a container while you're iterating over its items using any of the approaches?





Classify That Language: Iterators

```
class Kontainer implements Iterator {  
    private $array = array();  
  
    public function add($val)  
    { array_push($this->array,$val); }  
  
    private $pos = 0;  
  
    public function rewind() { $this->pos = 0; }  
  
    public function current()  
    { return $this->array[$this->pos]; }  
  
    public function key() { return $this->pos; }  
  
    public function next() { ++$this->pos; }  
  
    public function valid()  
    { return $this->pos < count($this->array); }  
}
```

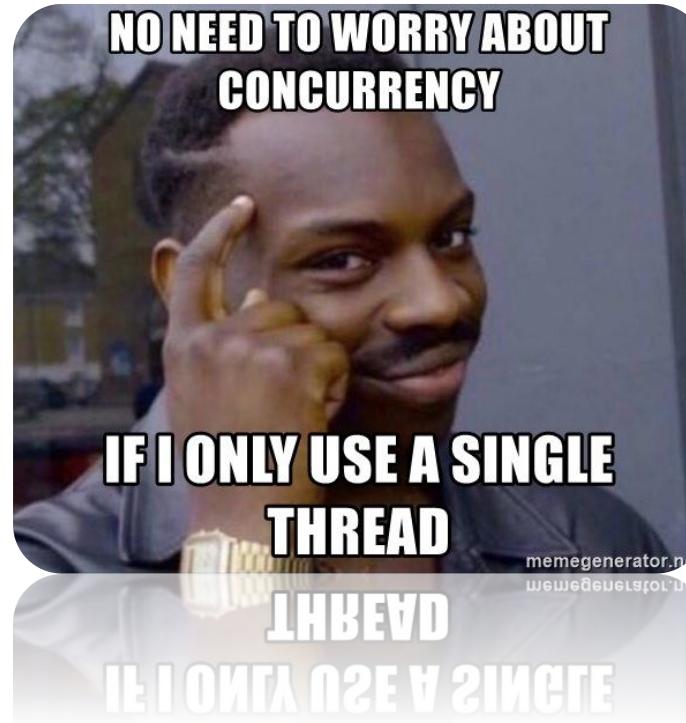
In the class to the left, we have created a container class that supports **iteration**.

Will this class support **nested loops**?
If so, why? If not, why not?

```
$letters = new Kontainer;  
$letters->add("a");  
$letters->add("b");  
$letters->add("c");  
  
foreach($items as $i) {  
    foreach($items as $j) {  
        print( $i . " " . $j . ", ");  
    }  
}
```

This is PHP!

Concurrency



Many modern programming languages have explicit support for concurrent execution (running multiple things at once).

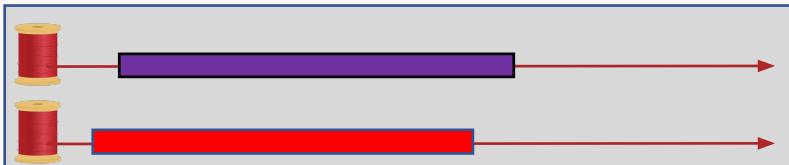
This is a huge domain, so we'll just do a quick survey of a few relevant areas.

Concurrency

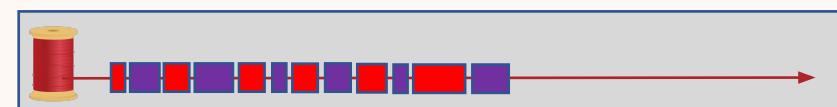
Concurrency is a paradigm in which a program is decomposed into simultaneously executing tasks.

Those tasks might...

Run in parallel on multiple cores



Run multiplexed on a single core



Operate on totally independent data
e.g., each sorting a different array



Operate on shared *mutable* data or systems
e.g., two tasks modifying a shared queue



Be launched deterministically as part
of the regular flow of a program

```
def solve_a_problem():
    a = run_concurrently task1()
    b = run_concurrently task2()
    use_results_when_done(a,b)
```

Be launched due to an external event
occurring, like a click of a button in a UI



Concurrency

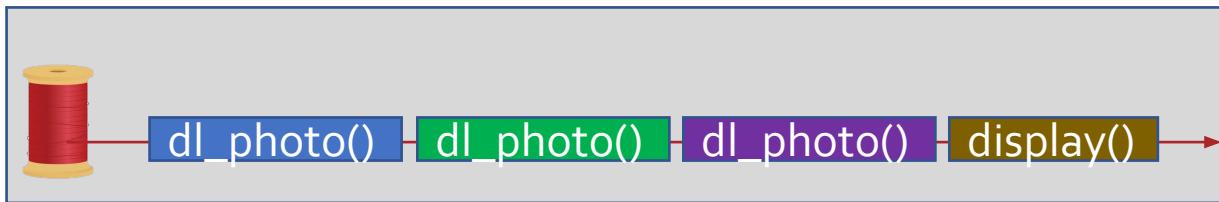
Concurrency can make our programs more efficient!

The old way: Serial Execution

```
def slide_show(url1, url2, url3):  
    photos = []  
    dl_photo(url1, photos)  
    dl_photo(url2, photos)  
    dl_photo(url3, photos)
```

By the way, this is pseudocode –
not correct syntax!

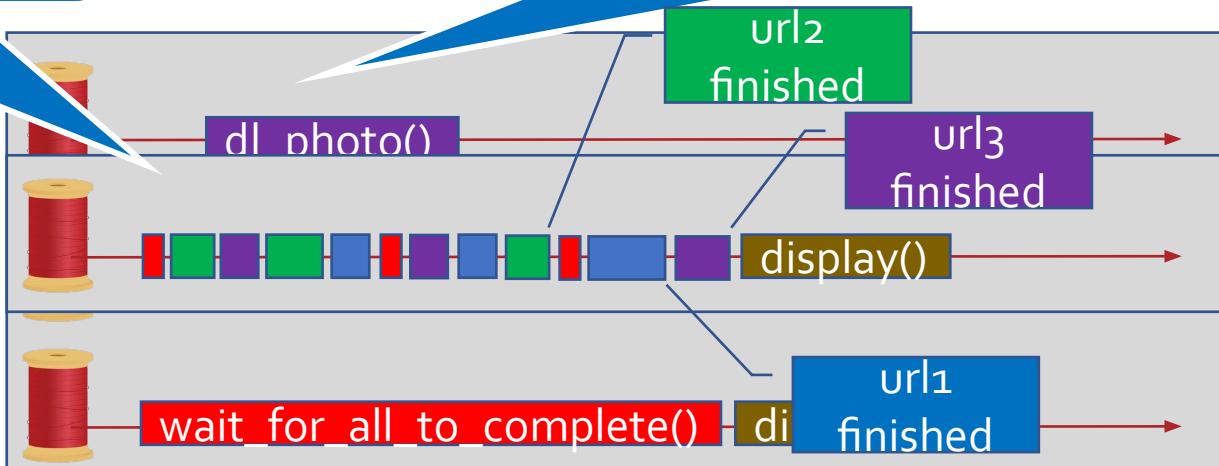
Or in a single thread, like this.



```
def slide_show(url1, url2, url3):  
    photos = []  
    a = run_concurrently dload_photo(url1, photos)  
    b = run_concurrently dload_photo(url2, photos)  
    c = run_concurrently dload_photo(url3, photos)  
    wait_for_all_to_complete(a,b,c)  
  
    display(photos)
```

Serial Execution

The concurrently-running tasks
could run in parallel like this...



Concurrency



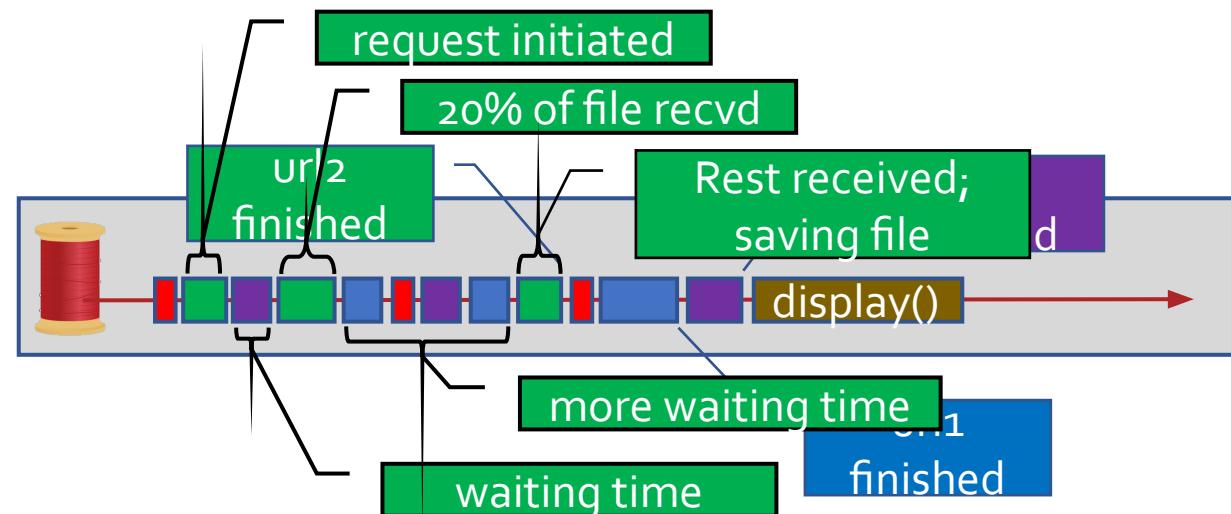
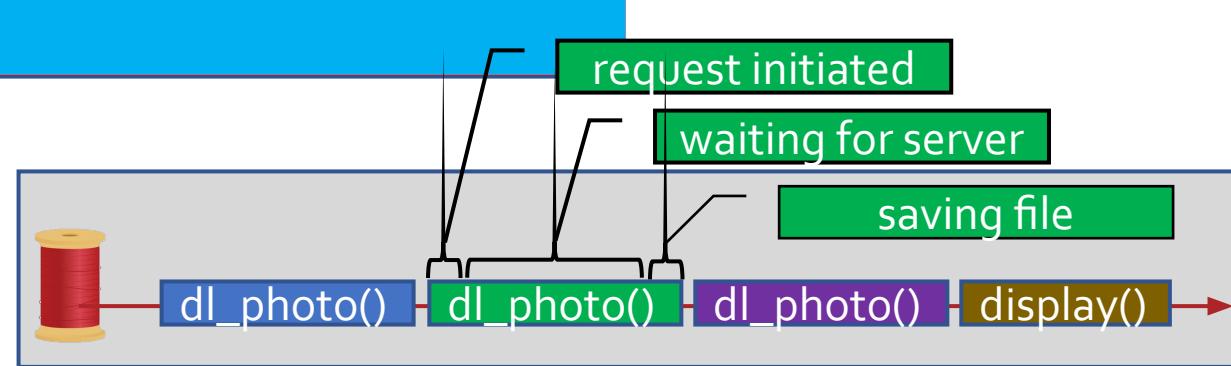
If a concurrent program only runs on a single core, why would it be any faster than a program that runs serially?

Answer: Some tasks involve lots of waiting, but make little use of the CPU!

Consider downloading a photo!

90% or more of the time might be waiting for the server to send the file!

During that waiting time, a concurrent program can use the CPU for other useful tasks!



karma would be an example of a mutable variable that's shared between multiple threads.

register1

```
// karma++ : assembly  
mov register1, [karma]  
inc register1  
mov [karma], register1  
  
int karma = 1;  
  
void do_good_deeds() {  
    for (int i=0;i<100000;++i)  
        karma++;  
}  
  
void be_naughty() {  
    for (int i=0;i<100000;++i)  
        karma--;  
}
```

karma 1

We might then pause again here,
to run our other thread.



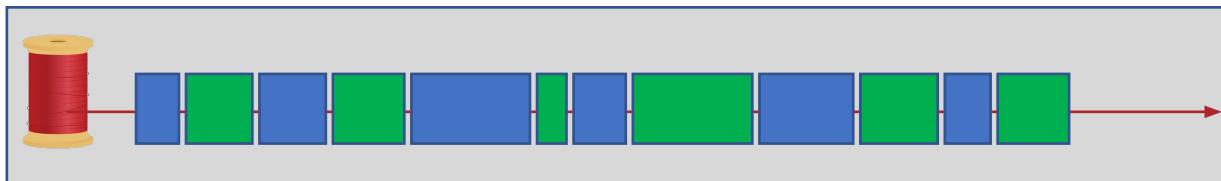
Academic Robot Says:

"A key goal of concurrency is **determinism**: ensuring that code produces the same result every time it runs (regardless of how its tasks are scheduled)!"

What will the value of karma be if I run both functions concurrently until completion? Why?

Our good karma thread completely overwrites the change made by the bad karma thread!

"thread" of execution can be interrupted by the other, it's impossible to know!



Any time two threads of execution use "shared mutable state", this kind of thing can happen.

This is called a "race condition."

Concurrency With Shared Mutable State

```
class Karma extends Thread {  
    private static int karma = 0  
  
    static void do_good_deeds() {  
        for (int i=0;i<100000;++i)  
            synchronized(Karma.class) { karma++; }  
    }  
  
    static void be_naughty() {  
        for (int i=0;i<100000;++i)  
            synchronized(Karma.class) { karma--; }  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String args[])  
    ... // Code to start two threads and  
    ... // do_good_deeds() and be_naughty()  
  
    System.out.println(karma);  
}
```

Most modern languages now have built-in language features to make it safer to use shared mutable state.

For example, Java's **synchronized** keyword can be used to limit access to a **mutable variable** to a single thread at a time.

The **synchronized** keyword ensures that only one of these two blocks can run at a time.

These features in any language you know they exist.

But be careful – it's still difficult to get shared mutable state right (and efficient)!

Models for Concurrency

There are two primary approaches:

Multi-threading Model

A program creates multiple "threads" of execution that run concurrently (potentially in parallel).

The programmer explicitly "launches" one or more functions in their own threads, and the OS schedules their execution across available CPU cores.

```
// Multi-threaded program (pseudocode)
void handle_user_purchase(User u, Item i) {
    if (bill_credit_card(u) == SUCCESS) {
        create_thread(schedule_shipping(u, i));
        create_thread(send_confirm_email(u, i));
    }
}
```



Academic Robot Says:

"Don't forget to mention there are hybrids, Carey!"

Event Driven Model

A program consists of a queue of functions to run, and an infinite loop that dequeues and runs each function from the queue, one after the other.

When an event occurs (e.g., user clicks a button) the event results in a new **function f()** being added to the queue which eventually runs and handles the event.

```
// Event-driven program (pseudocode)
function process_payment() { ... }

void setup_event_associations() {
    button = create_new_button("Pay Now!");
    button.set_func(ON_CLICK, process_payment);
}
```

Multi-Threading

**SOLVING A PROBLEM BY
MULTITHREADING?**

TWO PROBLEMS YOU HAVE NOW

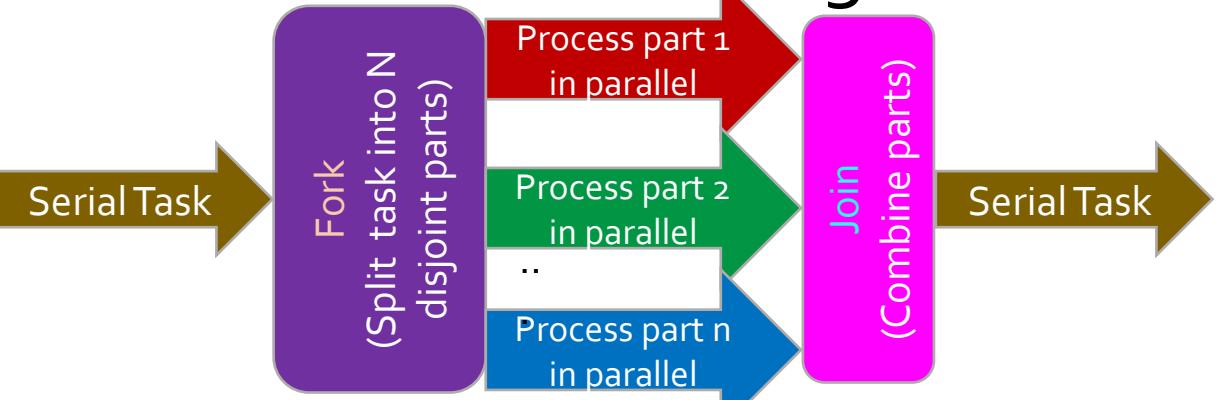
MONKEYS OUT YOUSEWING

memegenerator.net

Fork-Join: A Common Pattern for Multi-Threading

The `fork`-`join` pattern is basically a divide and conquer.

A parallel sort would be a good example of a problem suitable for fork-join.

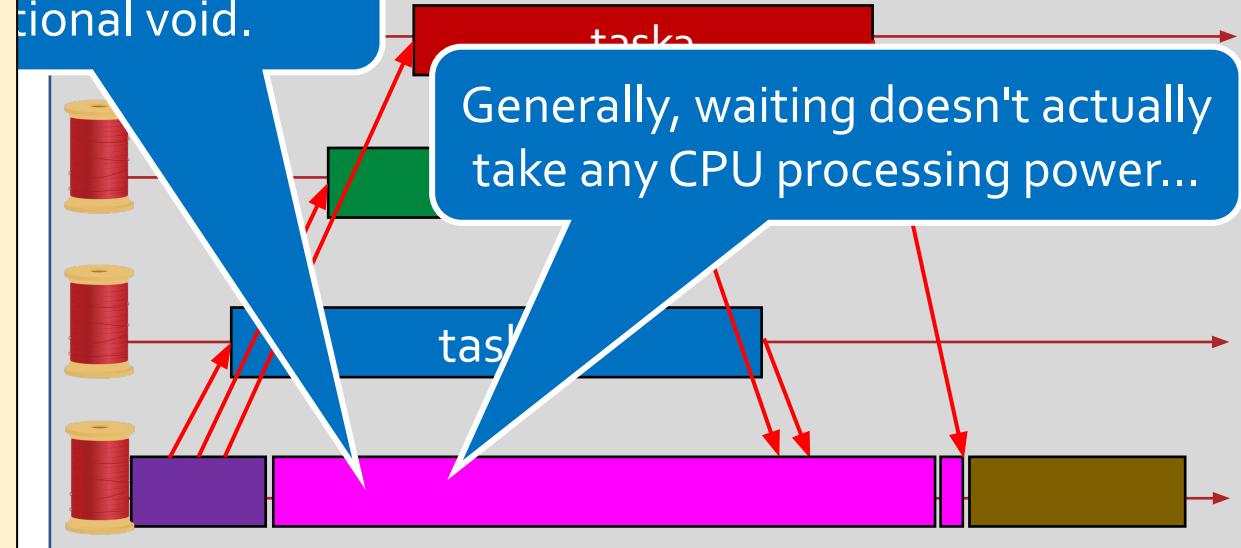


First, we "fork" one or more tasks so they execute concurrently...

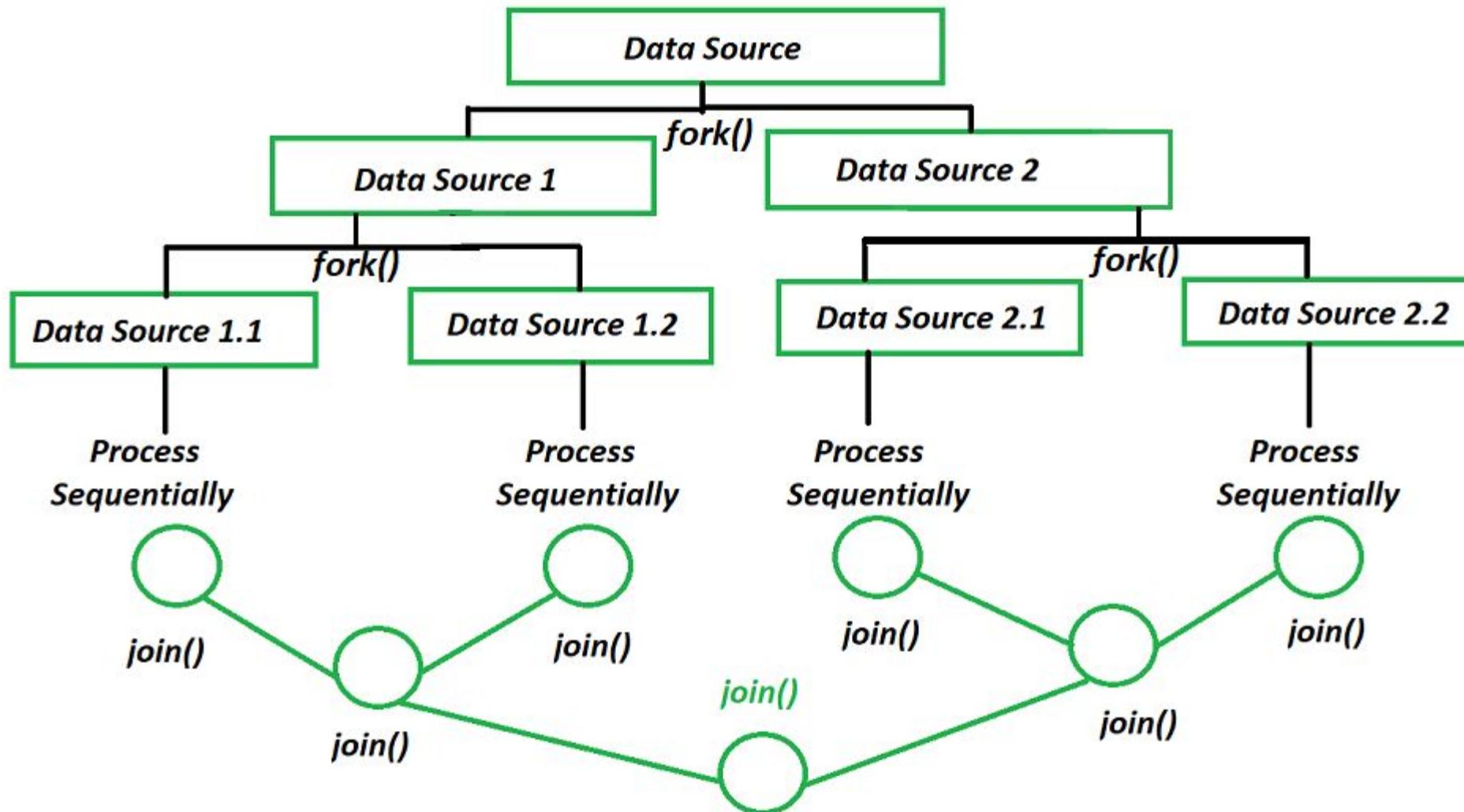
Second, we **wait** for all those tasks to complete (aka "join") and then proceed.

```
function sort_in_parallel(array, n) {  
    t1 = run_background(sort(array[0:n/3]));  
    t2 = run_background(sort(array[n/3:n*2/3]));  
    t3 = run_background(sort(array[n*2/3:n]));  
  
    wait_for_all_tasks_to_finish(t1, t2, t3);  
    merge_sorted_subarrays(array);  
}
```

Tasks can run in this
functional void.



Fork-Join is Often Used Recursively



Fork-Join In Different Lang

```
// C++  
#include <thread>  
  
void task1(int n)  
void task2(int n)  
void task3(int n) {  
  
int main() {  
    std::cout << "Forking threads!\n";  
    std::thread t1(task1, 10);  
    std::thread t2(task2, 20);  
    std::thread t3(task3, 30);  
  
    // do other stuff  
  
    t1.join();  
    t2.join();  
    t3.join();  
    std::cout << "All done!"  
}
```

We use `Task.WaitAll()` to join multiple tasks at once.

To join, we simple call the `thread.join()` method. This blocks the caller until the thread finishes.

after we join the results.

To launch background threads, we could have done a similar thing here to get the results if we liked.

```
// C#  
System;  
System;  
System  
class Program
```

The lambda function then calls our desired task function with the proper arguments, and then gets the result.

To fork, we use `task.Run()`, passed-in lambda functions.

```
public static void Main(string[] args) {  
    int r1 = 0, r2 = 0, r3 = 0;  
    Console.WriteLine("Forking threads");  
    var t1 = Task.Run(() => r1 = task1(10));  
    var t2 = Task.Run(() => r2 = task2(20));  
    var t3 = Task.Run(() => r3 = task3(30));  
    Task.WaitAll(t1, t2, t3);  
    Console.WriteLine("Joined: {0}, {1}, {2}", r1, r2, r3);  
}
```

Fork-Join In Different Languages: Python

```
# Python
import threading

def task(n):
    while n > 0:    # do some computation
        n = n - 1

    print("Forking threads!")
    t1 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t2 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t3 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t1.start()
    t2.start()
    t3.start()

# do other processing here...

t1.join()
t2.join()
t3.join()
print("All threads joined!")
```

Arguments to a task are passed in via a tuple.

In Python, we must create a thread object, and then do `thread.start()` before it runs.

And here's how we join.

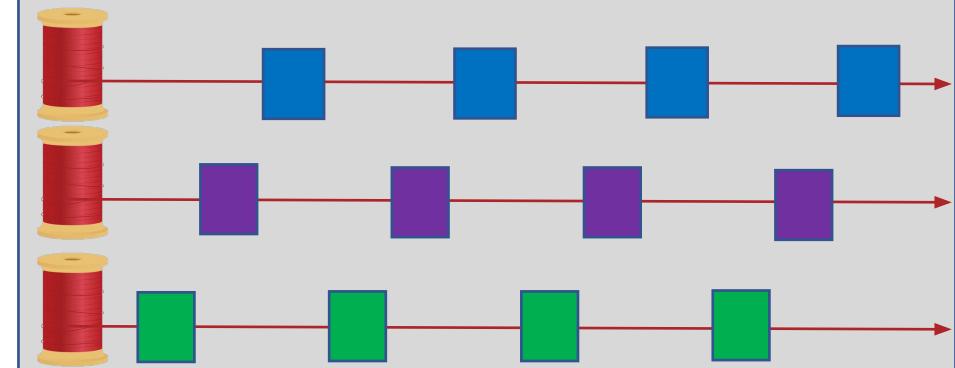


Assuming looping 100 million times takes 5s, how long will this program take to run on a multicore PC?

We'd expect all three tasks to run in parallel... taking 5s total. But it takes 15s!

Why? Because when each Python thread runs, it claims exclusive access to Python's memory/objects.

So only one thread generally does computation at a time!



Fork-Join In Different Languages: Python

```
# Python
import threading

def task(n):
    while n > 0:
        n = n - 1

    print("Forking threads!")
    t1 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t2 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t3 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=(100000000,))
    t1.start()
    t2.start()
    t3.start()

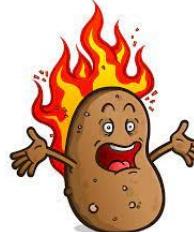
    # do other processing here...

    t1.join()
    t2.join()
    t3.join()
    print("All threads joined!")
```

Why? Python's garbage collection system was never designed to be thread-safe!

So, what's going on?

Python has something called a "Global Interpreter Lock" or GIL.



The GIL is like a hot potato – it can only have one owner at a time.

Once a thread takes ownership of the GIL it's allowed to read/write to Python objects.

After a thread runs for a while, it releases the GIL (tosses the potato) to another thread and gives it ownership.

If a thread is waiting for the GIL, it simply falls asleep until it gets its turn.

Fork-Join In Differ

```
# Python
import threading

def task(symbol):
    response = urllib2.urlopen('www.stocks.com/' + symbol)
    html = response.read()

    print("Forking threads!")
    t1 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=("goog",))
    t2 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=("amzn",))
    t3 = threading.Thread(target=task, args=("bby",))

    t1.start()
    t2.start()
    t3.start()

# do other processing here...

t1.join()
t2.join()
t3.join()
print("All threads joined!")
```



Academic Robot Says:

"In addition to I/O ops, many external C++ libraries (e.g., pytorch) have operations that can also run in parallel!"



Answer: I/O operations like downloading data from the web or saving a file to disk DON'T need the GIL to run!

So these kinds of operations can still make progress if launched in the background!



UI Programming and Concurrency

When we're building user interfaces, concurrency works a bit differently.



It might be surprising, but most UIs (Windows, MAC, iPhone, Android, browsers) are single-threaded and "event-based"!



Let's see how [event-based concurrency](#) works next!

But First... Callback Functions

A callback function is a function that is called when an "event" occurs.

The event could be a **click of a UI button**, a **timer expiring**, or a **completed payment transaction**.

The callback performs a follow-up action that handles the event.

```
function set_up_ui() {  
    payment_button = new Button("Pay now!");  
    payment_button.set_callback(ON_CLICK, call_upon_click);  
    add_button_to_ui(payment_button);  
}  
  
function call_upon_click() {  
    pay_obj = new PaymentProcessor();  
    pay_obj.set_callback(call_upon_payment_done);  
    pay_obj.initiate_payment_in_background();  
}  
  
function call_upon_payment_done(result) {  
    if (result == SUCCESS) update_ui("Payment acc");  
    else update_ui("Card denied");  
}
```

This says: "Call the **call_upon_click()** function if/when the user clicks the payment button."

And instructs it to call this **callback** when it eventually completes.

For example, a **callback** handling a button click could initiate a credit-card purchase...

and the **callback** that's triggered when the purchase completes would update the webpage with result.

This initiates the payment in the background... It might take a while...

A Side Note

```
<html>
<body>
<h1>Fortune Teller</h1>
<p id="fort">What does the future hold?</p>
<button onclick="callbk();">Get Fortune</button>

<script>
    set_background_color(BLACK);
    play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");

    function callbk() {
        set_element("fort", "You'll ace CS131!");
    }
</script>

</body>
</html>
```

It defines a text field where we'll show our fortune.

Under this webpage written in pseudo HTML and JavaScript.

This specifies a "handler" or "callback" function for our button.

This page also has top-level statements that run when the page initially loads.

In this example, our handler updates the "fort" field with the user's fortune.

Web Browser in a Slide

```
class Browser:
```

While traditional programs run from top-to-bottom, programs with UIs use a different model.

Why? UIs contain elements (e.g., buttons, sliders) that the user can interact with in any order!

So UIs use something called an **Event Loop** to control their execution.

Let's look at a high-level model for a web browser to see how the Event Loop works.

Web Browser

```
class Browser:  
    def __init__(self, page):  
        self objs_on_page = self.get_all_objs(page)  
        self run_queue = self.extract_stmts(page)
```

```
<html>  
<body>  
<h1>Fortune Teller</h1>  
<p id="fort">What does the future hold?</p>  
<button onclick="callbk();">Get Fortune</button>
```

```
<script>  
    set_background_color(BLACK);  
    play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");
```

```
        function callbk() {  
            set_element("fort", "You'll ace CS131!");  
        }  
</script>
```

```
</body>  
</html>
```

The browser keeps track of anything in the UI that can be interacted with by the user.

The browser starts by queuing up all of the top-level statements on the webpage for execution.

objs_on_page

```
    Button  
    text = "Get Fortune"  
    onclick = callbk()
```

...

It maintains a queue of statements to execute from the page.

run_queue

```
    set_background_color(BLACK);  
  
    play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");
```

objects on a page (sliders, etc.).

The browser manages two sets of items:

Web Browser in a Slide

```
class Browser:  
    def __init__(self, page):  
        self objs_on_page = self.get_all_objs(page)  
        self.run_queue = self.extract_stmts(page)  
  
    def event_loop(self):  
        while True:  
            self.handle_events()  
            self.run_next_statement()
```

Now let's see our event loop – it runs an infinite loop that does two things.

First, it checks to see if the user interacted with the page's elements, and if so, deals with this.

Second, it gets the next statement from the queue (if there are any) and runs it.

The loop runs over and over, handling events, and running the next queued statement...

```
...  
<button onclick="callbk();">Get Fortune</button>  
  
<script>  
  set_background_color(BLACK);  
  play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");  
  
  function callbk() {  
    set_element("fort", "You'll ace CS131!");  
  }  
</script>
```

```
...  
  
def handle_events(self):  
  for obj in self objs_on_page:  
    if obj.event_occurred():  
      func = obj.get_handler()  
      self.run_queue.append(func)
```



in a Slide

How do we handle user-interaction events?

We cycle through each of the UI elements on the screen to see if any have been interacted with...

If an element has experienced an event (e.g., a click)...

we ask it for its handler (aka callback) function...

But we DON'T call the handler immediately!!!

Instead, we queue the function up for later execution!

run_queue

```
set_background_color(BLACK);  
play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");  
callbk();
```

Web Browser in a Slide

```
class Browser:
    def __init__(self):
        self.objs_on_page = []
        self.run_queue = []

    def event_occurred(self):
        while True:
            self.handle_events()
            self.render()

    def handle_events(self):
        for obj in self.objs_on_page:
            if obj.event_occurred():
                func = obj.get_handler()
                self.run_queue.append(func)

    def run_next_statement(self):
        if len(self.run_queue) > 0:
            func = self.dequeue()
            func()
```



Finally, let's see how we run statements.

We just check to see if the queue has pending statements to run...

And if so, we dequeue the next statement and run it to completion!



run_queue

```
set_background_color(BLACK);
play_mp3("spooky_music.mp3");
callbk();
```

Web Browser in a Slide

```
class Browser:  
    def __init__(self, page):  
        self objs_on_page = self.get_all_objs(page)  
        self run_queue = self.extract_stmts(page)  
  
    def event_loop(self):  
        while True:  
            self.handle_events()  
            self.run_next_statement()  
  
    def handle_events(self):  
        for obj in self objs_on_page:  
            if obj.event_occurred():  
                func = obj.get_handler()  
                self run_queue.append(func)  
  
    def run_next_statement(self):  
        if len(self run_queue) > 0:  
            func = self.dequeue()  
            func()
```

The Event Loop runs over and over...

Checking for new events...

Potentially adding items to the run queue...

Then running the next item in the run queue until completion...

Web Browser in a Slide

```
class Browser:  
    def __init__(self, page):  
        self objs_on_page = self.get_all_objs(page)  
        self.run_queue = self.extract_stmts(page)  
  
    def event_loop(self):  
        while True:  
            self.handle_events()  
            self.run_next_statement()  
  
    def handle_events(self):  
        for obj in self objs_on_page:  
            if obj.event_occurred():  
                func = obj.get_handler()  
                self.run_queue.append(func)  
  
    def run_next_statement(self):  
        if len(self.run_queue) > 0:  
            func = self.dequeue()  
            func()
```

I/O is also tracked by
the event handler just
like UI events!

When they finish, the event
handler queues up a callback
to run on the main thread.

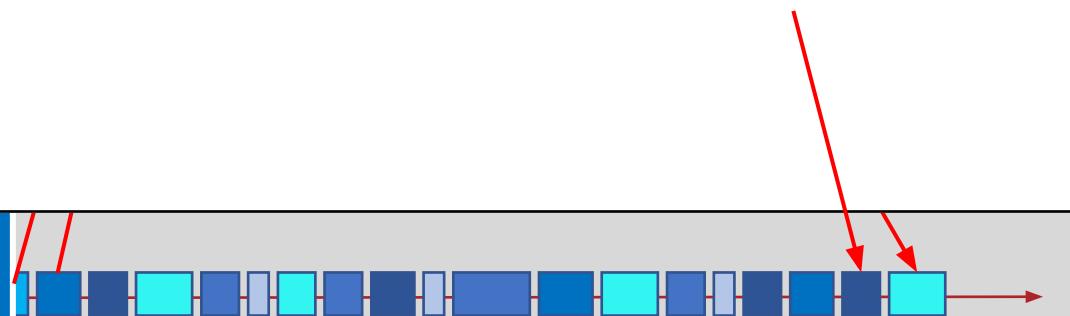
But wait, does ALL browser activity run in
the event loop?

OK, maybe I oversimplified.

By default, all [user-supplied UI code](#) (e.g.,
javascript) DOES run on the event loop...

But things like I/O (e.g., [downloading data](#),
[querying a DB](#)) DO run on background threads!

In addition, you can also launch your own
background threads, but there are caveats.



Event Loops, Callbacks and I/O: Example



```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
  function update_weather_in_ui() {
    /* code to update the weather UI */
  }

  function download_weather() {
    var req = new XMLHttpRequest();
    req.callback_on_completion = update_weather_in_ui;
    req.set_url("https://www.weather.com");
    req.launch_in_background();
  }

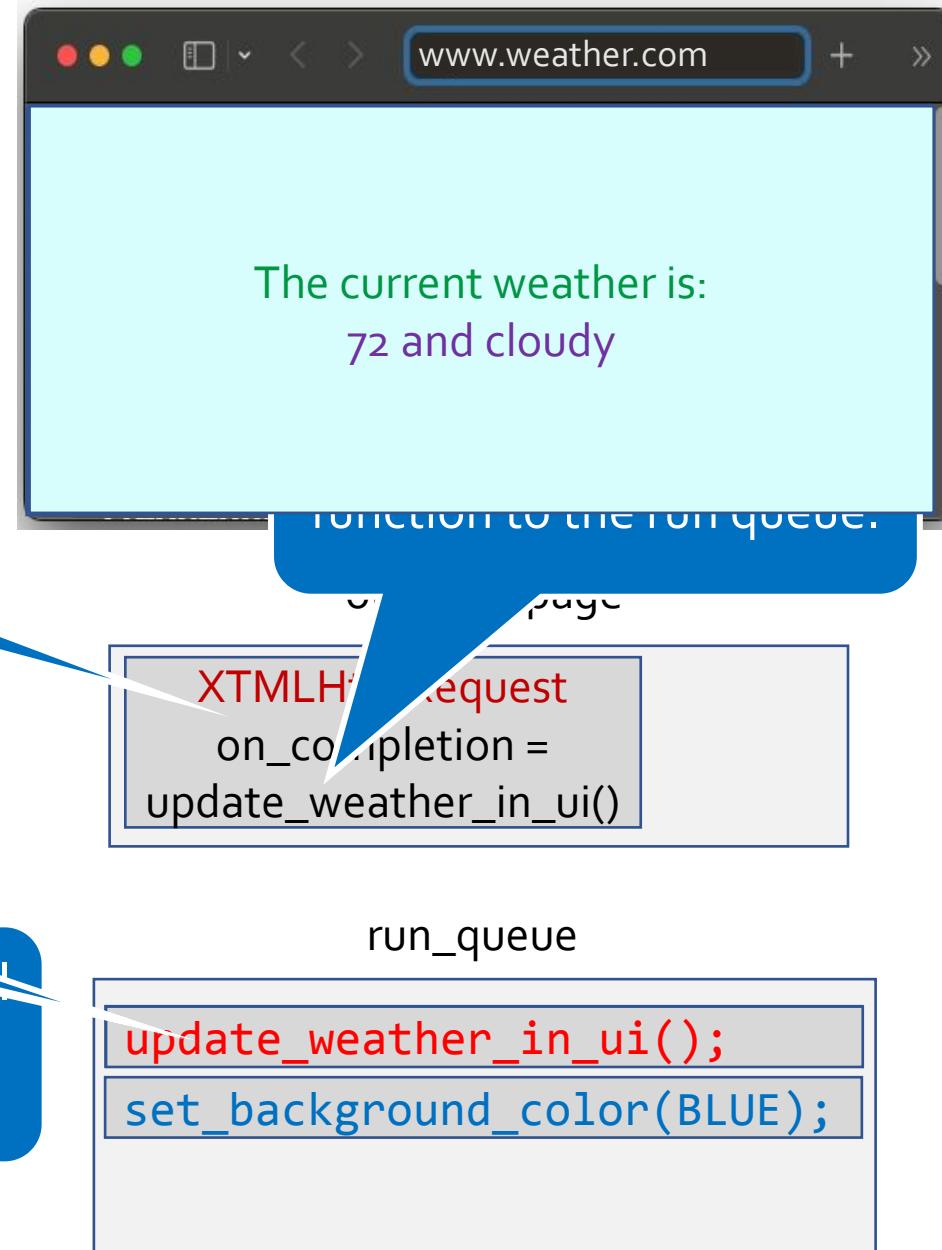
  download_weather();
  set_background_color(BLUE);
</script>
</body></html>
```

A few seconds later, our web request finishes and the event triggers.

We then dequeue the next function call and run it to completion.

Our function continues running immediately...

the web request is loaded, and registers it for the page.



Event Loop Challenge

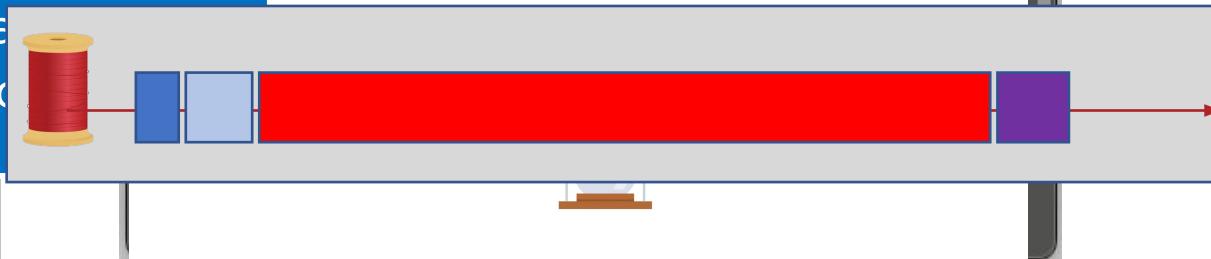
```
class Browser:  
    def __init__(self, page):  
        self objs_on_page = self.get_all_objs()  
        self.run_queue = self.extract_s  
  
    def event_loop(self):  
        while True:  
            self.handle_events();  
            self.run_next_statement();  
  
    def handle_events(self):  
        for obj in self objs_on_page:  
            if obj.event_occurred():  
                func = obj.get_handler()  
                self.run_queue.append(func)  
  
    def run_next_statement(self):  
        if len(self.run_queue):  
            func = self.dequeue()  
            func()
```

The event handler can't run and process UI events like clicks, etc.

run_queue

```
run_billion_iteration_loop();  
handle_button_click();
```

The event-loop can only do one thing at a time, so if a function (or any of the functions it calls) takes a long time to run...



...one of the statements in the run_next_statement() function takes a long time to run?

Event Loops are Everywhere

Mobile App Frameworks



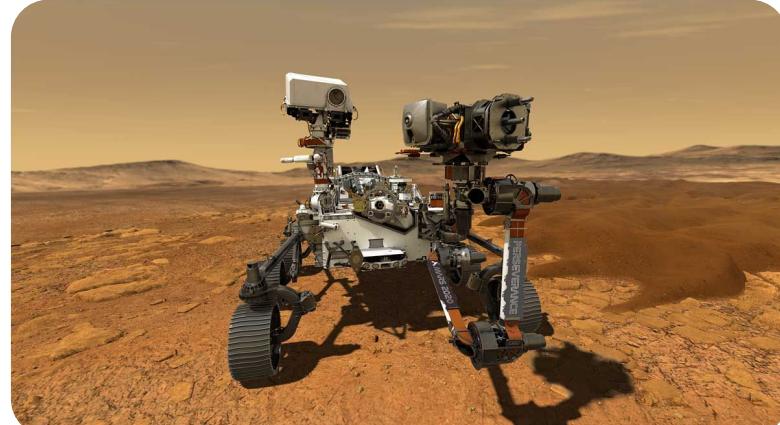
Backend Frameworks



Industrial Robotics



Even the Mars Rover!



Event Loops and Sequences of Callbacks

```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>

function update_weather_in_ui()
{ /* code to update the weather field */ }

function download_weather() {
  var req = new WebRequest();
  req.callback_on_completion = update_weather_in_ui;
  req.set_url("https://www.weather.com/...");
  req.launch_in_background();
}

download_weather();
set_background_color(BLUE);

</script>
</body></html>
```

In this example, we saw how to run a long-running op in the background...

And use a **callback** upon completion to perform the next processing step.

While sometimes we'll just need to run a single background op...

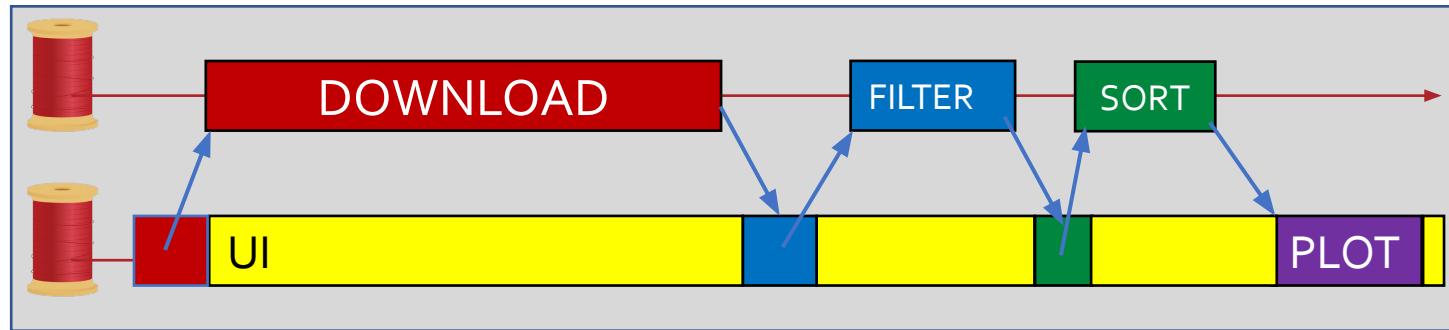
In many cases, we want to chain multiple long-running background ops together into a pipeline.

This lets us accomplish more complex tasks in the background.

Chaining Background Ops Together

Let's say we want to **download some data**, then **filter the data**, then **sort the data**, then **update the UI**.

We'd like to perform these tasks in the background, while the event loop lets the user interact with the UI...



To make this happen, we provide each phase of the pipeline with a callback function that indicates the next function to run.

The second-to-last stage runs its task in the background...

```
function launch_sort(data, callback) {  
    run_in_background {  
        sort_data(data);  
        add_to_run_queue(callback);  
    }  
}
```

And once it finishes, it adds its callback function to the run queue.

Once we finish
downloading the data...

Once we finish
filtering the data...

We run a
callback that
displays the data...

This nesting syntax gets so ugly that it's
been given a few names including...

Chaining (With Callbacks) Can Get Ugly

...going into detail, the syntax to chain multiple background functions together with callbacks is pretty ugly and requires the use of lambda functions...

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    launch_download(  
        url,  
        lambda (data) {  
            launch_filter(  
                data,  
                lambda (fdata) {  
                    launch_sort(  
                        fdata,  
                        lambda (sdata) {  
                            display_in_ui(sdata);  
                        }  
                    );  
                }  
            );  
        }  
    );  
}
```

We run a callback that sorts
the data...

We run a callback that
displays the data...

Callback Hell and The Pyramid of DOOM!

Promises: A Cleaner Syntax for Chaining Operations

For this to work, each of our functions must be rewritten to use Promise objects.

Once the data has finished downloading...

, and then filter the data, and then sort it the data in the UI

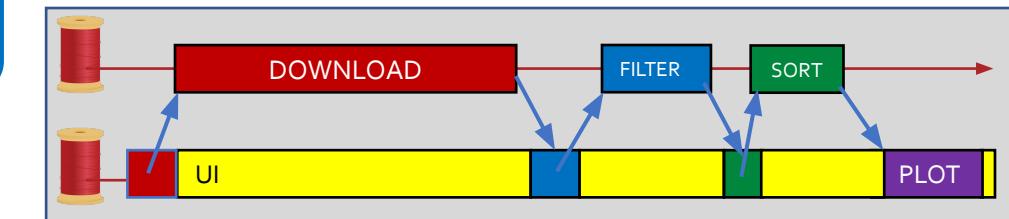
Once the data has finished filtering...

```
function ui(ui, sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .ui(sorted_data);  
    } )
```

This says: Add this lambda function (which is a callback) to the run queue...

E This says: Add this lambda function to the run queue...

This chunk of code defines a pipeline of operations. It's work, produces a result, add lambda in the pipeline.



This syntax hides what's really going on – it's really just using callbacks like before!

P

This chunk of code defines
a pipeline of operations.

When

Syntax for

When

Execution of the pipeline
happens concurrently!

ons

ently!

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (sorted_data) { update_ui(sorted_data); } )  
}  
  
do_first_thing()  
display_sorted_f  
while (!done) {  
    do_other_stuff();  
    do_even_more_stuff();  
}
```

This pipeline won't run to completion here!
It's just started here, and runs in the background.

```
function download_data(url){  
    while (!done) {  
        get_data()  
        save_data()  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function filter_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        foo();  
        bar();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function sort_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        divide();  
        conquer();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function update_ui(data) {  
    ...  
}
```

There's a lot of detail that we're skipping, but the important thing is to be able to
recognize "Promise" syntax and know what's going on.

If this step of the pipeline generates an error...

Promises and Errors

OK, how do we deal with errors that occur in the pipeline? To do so, we use an "exception-like" syntax -

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (sorted_data) { update_ui(sorted_data); } )  
        .catch(lambda (error) { add_error_to_all_errors(error); } )  
}
```

This catch

This catch
handler runs.

If you don't catch an error, it will propagate onto the next step in the pipeline.

Adding this lambda
onto the run queue.

Adding this lambda
onto the run queue.

Although this provides less error-handling granularity, so be careful.

Promises In a Few Different Languages

```
// JavaScript promise example
function create_and_run_promise(input) {
  run_first_computation(input)
    .then(function(output1) {
      run_second_computation(output1);
    })
    .then(function(output2) {
      run_third_computation(output2);
    })
    .then(function(output3) {
      console.log("Final output: " + output3);
    });
}
```

We start by supplying an asynchronous function to run.

Once we get the final result of our promise, it'll be a String.

Our JavaScript example looks much like our earlier pseudocode.

Java use different terminology – CompletableFuture would be the equivalent of a Promise in our earlier examples.

```
try {
  CompletableFuture<String> result =
    CompletableFuture.supplyAsync(() -> {
      return run_first_computation(input);
    })
    .thenApplyAsync(output1 -> {
      return run_second_computation(output1);
    })
    .thenApplyAsync(output2 -> {
      return run_third_computation(output2);
    });
}
```

And then supply other functions.

This call will suspend execution of our function until we get the final result from our pipeline.

These will start running in the background immediately.

There's a Lot More To Promises

We've just scratched the surface of Promises!



For example, we didn't learn how to create a function that creates a new Promise and keeps it!

You'll only be responsible for what we learned in class on the final, but if you'd like to learn more:



<https://github.com/TimothyGu/learning-promises/blob/main/by-building/README.md>

`async` means that the function will run asynchronously and deliver its result at some unknown point in the future.

Syntax for Chaining Operations

Let another approach with even simpler syntax.

Here's the `async/await` version of our earlier pipeline in JavaScript:

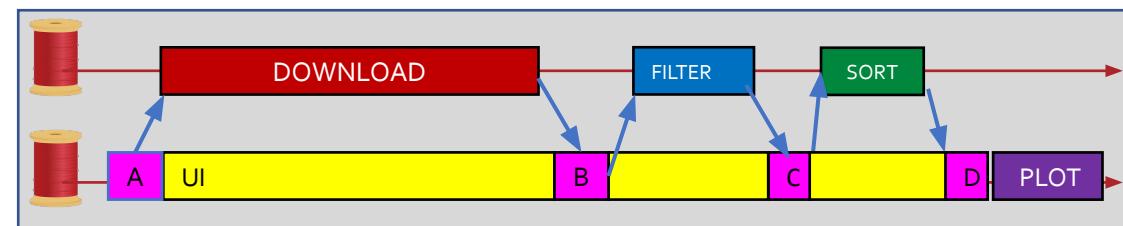
```
async function download_data(url) { ... }  
async function filter_data(data) { ... }  
async function sort_data(data) { ... }  
function update_ui(data) { ... }
```

```
async function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    data = await download_data(url); //  
    fdata = await filter_data(data); //  
    sdata = await sort_data(fdata); //  
    update_ui(sdata); //  
}
```

And wake me up later
And wake me up later
once we get a result.

Then launch this operation
in the background...
...many iterations of this operation
in the background...

Then finally
finish.



Async/Await Syntax for Chaining Operations

Let's dive a little deeper into async/await.

When you use this paradigm, there are two phases for executing tasks

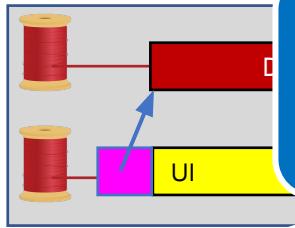
Launch the Async Function

You request execution of a function in the background and obtain a handle to the pending task.

The async function immediately returns a "handle" that can be used to track its progress.

The handle is NOT the function's return object we can use to get the return value. The function eventually finishes running.

If the async task returned a result, we can get it here when the awaiting is done.



```
async function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    data = await download_data(url);  
    fdata = await filter_data(data);  
    sdata = await sort_data(fdata);  
    update_ui(sdata);  
}
```

After launch, the current function continues running

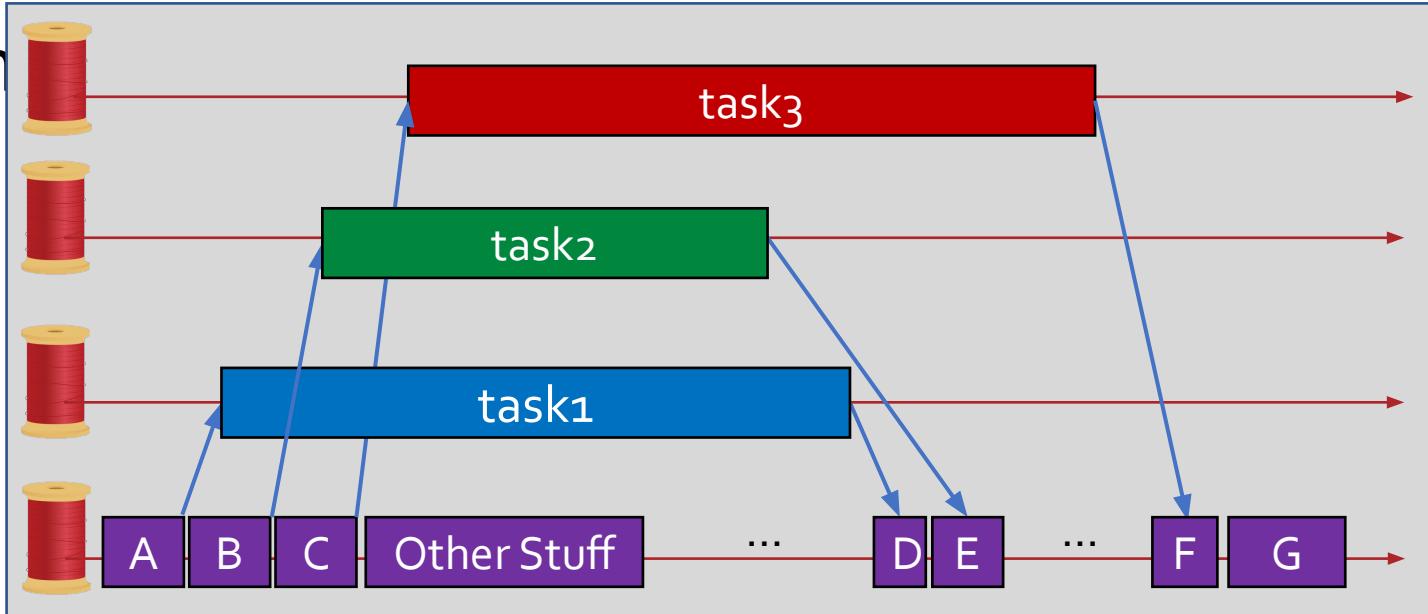
Await suspends execution of our current function until the async task finishes (and returns a result). The code behaves in a synchronous manner, but in fact it's asynchronous!

Async/Await Syntax

Of course, there's no reason you must immediately await tasks like in our previous example.

Let's see.

Launch the Async Function



You request execution of the background and continue pending...

Now we wait for our three tasks to complete!

```
async function run() {  
  h1 = task1(data1);  
  h2 = task2(data2);  
  h3 = task3(data3);  
  ... // Do other stuff in the meanwhile...
```

Execution proceeds immediately to the next statements...

Wait for Completion

You may optionally wait for your launched task to complete its execution, and then

Once all three finish, we can use their results.

```
}
```

```
result1 = await h1;  
result2 = await h2;  
result3 = await h3;
```

This immediately launches all three tasks in the background without waiting for them to finish.

```
// D  
// E  
// F  
// G
```

Async/Await Implementation

Async functions are paused and can later resume execution with all their local variables and other state intact.

What technology do you think is used to implement async functions?

Answer: Asyn

Await is basically implemented using a type of "yield"

```
async def do_many_things(a):  
    b = await do_thi  
    c = await do_thi  
    d = await do_thi  
    return d
```

When it finishes running, it can re-activate the calling function's closure and send over the computed result!

```
async def do_many_things(a):  
    b = yield_to do_thing1(a, this_closure())  
    c = yield_to do_thing2(b, this_closure())  
    d = yield_to do_thing3(c, this_closure())  
    return d
```

fundamental technology as

```
async def do_thing1(a):  
    result = ... # some slow task  
  
    return result
```

```
async  
resu  
yield
```

Our async function secretly knows where to return when it's done.

yield_to secretly passes the function's closure as a parameter to the called function, then goes to sleep waiting for a result.

This technology underlying **generators** and **async functions** is called a "**coroutine**".

In JavaScript we define async functions using the `async` keyword.

```
// JavaScript - async/await  
async function doesnt_return_value()  
{  
    // async code that doesn't  
    // need to return a result  
}
```

And only then does it continue executing...

```
}  
  
async function example()  
{  
    h = doesnt_return_value();  
    r = await h;  
}  
  
example();  
other_stuff();
```

However, calling `await` on a handle...

Every async function returns a handle that tracks its progress – we can use `await` on it.

Asynchronous Languages: JavaScript

Until the result is available...

Blocks the function...

Calling an async function automatically launches it in the background.

Causes it to run in the background until completion.

`return_value()`

`doesnt_return_value()`

with the next line of code...

in the background until completion.

E

In Kotlin, this is how we define an asynchronous function.

```
# Python async/await
import asyncio
# Python asynchronous
async def doesnt_return_value():
    # async code that doesn't
    # need to return a result
```

```
async def does_return_value():
    # async code that
    # return some result
```

```
async def example():
    asyncio.create_task(doesnt_return_value())
    h = asyncio.create_task(does_return_value())
    r = await h
    # use result value of r here
```

```
asyncio.run(example())
other_stuff();
```

In Python,
how we define
asynchronous function.

Here's how we
an asynchronous

Here's how launch a task in
the background.

Here's how we
complete a task

In Python,
processing

```
// Kotlin async/await example
import kotlinx.coroutines.*
import kotlin.system.*

suspend fun doesnt_return_value() {
    // async code that doesn't
    // need to return a result
}
```

rn_value(): Int {
produces a result

```
suspend fun example() = runBlocking<Unit> {
    async { doesnt_return_value() }
    val h = async { does_return_value() }
    val r = h.await()
    // use result value of r here...
}
```

```
fun main() = runBL
    async { example(
    }
```

Here's how we block
awaiting a result.

Classification of Concurrency

```
func foo(output_channel chan byte)  
var c byte  
for c = 'a'; c <= 'y'; c++ {  
    fmt.Printf("%c", c)  
    time.Sleep(100) // millis  
}  
  
output_channel <- 'z'  
}
```

The two functions run concurrently with each other.

The program on the left produces the following output:

```
aab12cd34e5fg67hi8j9  
:ing...  
lopqrstuvwxyz  
put: z
```

The called function can communicate back with the caller over a "channel" (aka queue).

```
func main() {  
    output_channel := make(chan byte)  
    go foo(output_channel)  
  
    for i := 0; i < 10; i++ {  
        fmt.Printf("%c", i)  
        time.Sleep(100)  
    }  
    fmt.Printf("\nWaiting...\n")  
    fmt.Printf("\nOutput: %c\n", <-output_channel)  
}
```

This launches `foo()` so it runs concurrently.

This is the way to extract a value passed over the channel.

This is Go!

What can we conclude about concurrency in this language?

Want to Learn More about Async/Await?

See the excellent writeup below by
our own Timothy Gu!



<https://github.com/TimothyGu/learning-promises/tree/main/async-await?fbclid=IwARoIDCnd5xGHGt1yXlIR5p5flfmLfOczpAo6wgGB4ntYakl7u8-QDCmsdFo>

That's It!

Hopefully, you now have a good overview of how **expression evaluation**, **flow control** and **concurrency** work across programming languages!

And now... onto Prolog!

Slide Graveyard/Appendix

Callbacks, Promises and Async/Await

We've just seen three different methods (**callbacks, promises, async/await**) for creating pipelines of asynchronous operations.

Which approach do you like best? Why?



Async/Await

```
function defrost() { ... }
...
function make_burger(frozen_patty, bun) {
  h1 = launch_background defrost(frozen_patty);
  h2 = launch_background preheat_griddle();

  defrosted_patty = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h1)
  wait_for_completion(h2)

  h3 = launch_background fry_patty(defrosted_patty);
  h4 = launch_background toast(bun);
  fried_patty = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h3)
  toasted_bun = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h4)

  assemble_burger(fried_patty, toasted_bun);
}
```

let's introduce a new primitive that lets a function run in the background:
once we launch it, it's fire and forget

let's introduce a second primitive that lets us wait for a function to complete

how long will it take now?

Async/Await

```
function defrost() { ... }
...
function make_burger(frozen_patty, bun) {
  h1 = launch_background defrost(frozen_patty);
  h2 = launch_background preheat_griddle();

  defrosted_patty = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h1)
  wait_for_completion(h2)

  h3 = launch_background fry_patty(defrosted_patty);
  h4 = launch_background toast(bun);
  fried_patty = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h3)
  toasted_bun = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h4)

  assemble_burger(fried_patty, toasted_bun);
}
```

Ok, what if we want to do even more in parallel

```
function make_fries() { ... } // 10m
                           let's trace through it

function make_meal() {
  frozen_patty = Patty();
  bun = Bun();
  frozen_fries = Fries();

  h1 = launch_background make_burger(frozen_patty, bun);
  h2 = launch_background make_fries(frozen_fries);

  burger = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h1)
  fries = wait_for_completion_and_get_result(h2)
}
```

Async/Await

```
function make_burger(frozen_patty, bun) {  
    defrosted_patty = defrost(frozen_patty);           // 30m (returns a "patty")  
    preheat_griddle();                  // 10m (doesn't return value)  
    fried_patty = fry_patty(defrosted_patty);          // 5m  
    toasted_bun = toast(bun);                  // 5m  
    assemble_burger(fried_patty, toasted_bun);          // 3m  
}  
  
async function make_burger(frozen_patty, bun) {  
    task1 = defrost_patty(frozen_patty);           // 30m (returns a "patty")  
    task2 = preheat_griddle();                     // 10m (doesn't return value)  
    defrosted_patty = await task1;  
    await task2;  
  
    task3 = fry_patty(defrosted_patty);           // 5m  
    task4 = toast(bun);                          // 5m  
    fried_patty = await task3;  
    toasted_bun = await task4;  
    burger = assemble_burger(fried_patty, toasted_bun); // 3m  
    return burger;  
}
```

```
const washVeggies = () => {  
    console.log('Start washing!');  
    const start = Date.now();      // Get a reference of the  
    current time.  
    while (Date.now() < start + 2000) {} // continuously checks  
    2000 milliseconds has passed.  
    console.log('Veggies washed!');  
};
```

what are the rules when something runs in the background
what are the rules when something blocks

Async/Await

```
const washVeggies = () => {
    console.log('Start washing!');
    const start = Date.now();      // Get a reference of the
                                   current time.
    while (Date.now() < start + 2000) {} // continuosly checks
                                         2000 milliseconds has passed.
    console.log('Veggies washed!');
};
```

what are the rules when something runs in the background
what are the rules when something blocks

Callbacks In (One) Other Language

```
// Swift
func createOurButton() {

    let myFirstButton = UIButton()
    myFirstButton.setTitle("Click Me", for: .normal)
    ...
    myFirstButton.addTarget(self,
                           action: #selector(pressed),
                           for: .touchUpInside)
}

@objc func pressed() {
    var alertView = UIAlertView()
    alertView.addButtonWithTitle("Ok")
    alertView.title = "Get Excited!"
    alertView.message = "The callback was called!"
    alertView.show()
}
```

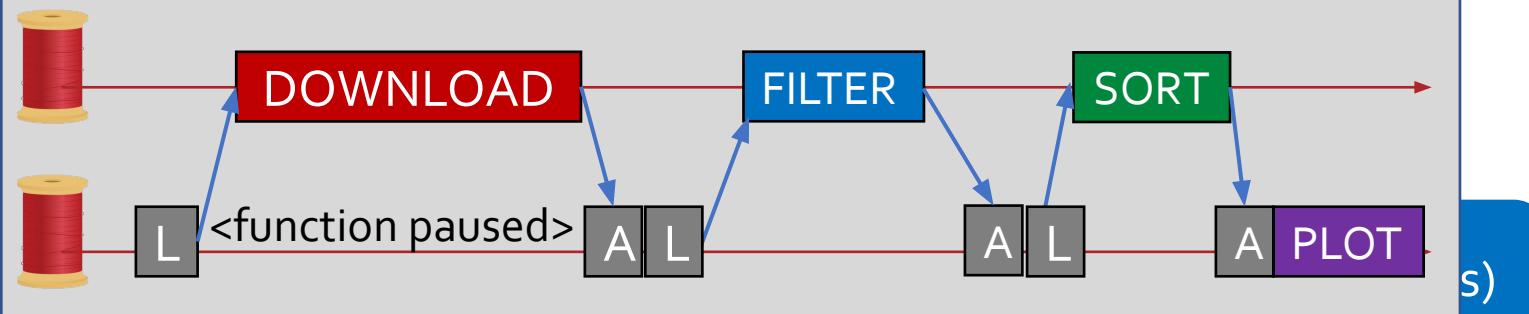
Here's how we specify our **callback** function.

It's called if we click and release on the button.

The **Async/Await** model is yet another way to handle tasks.

When you use this pattern,

Async/Await



Launch the Async Function

You request execution of one or more functions in the background and obtain handle(s) to the pending task(s).

Wait for Completion

You may optionally **wait** for your task(s) to complete their execution, and then obtain their result.

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    data = await launch_async download_data(url);  
    fdata = await launch_async filter_data(data);  
    sdata = await launch_async sort_data(fdata);  
    update_ui(sdata);  
}
```

After launch, the current function continues running

This provides the same semantics as our promise-based code!

Once we get a result, the thread continues executing.

The code looks synchronous, but in fact it's asynchronous!

Get the handles, too!

in the background.

Of course, there's no reason you must immediately await tasks like in our previous example.

Let's see.

Launch the Async Function

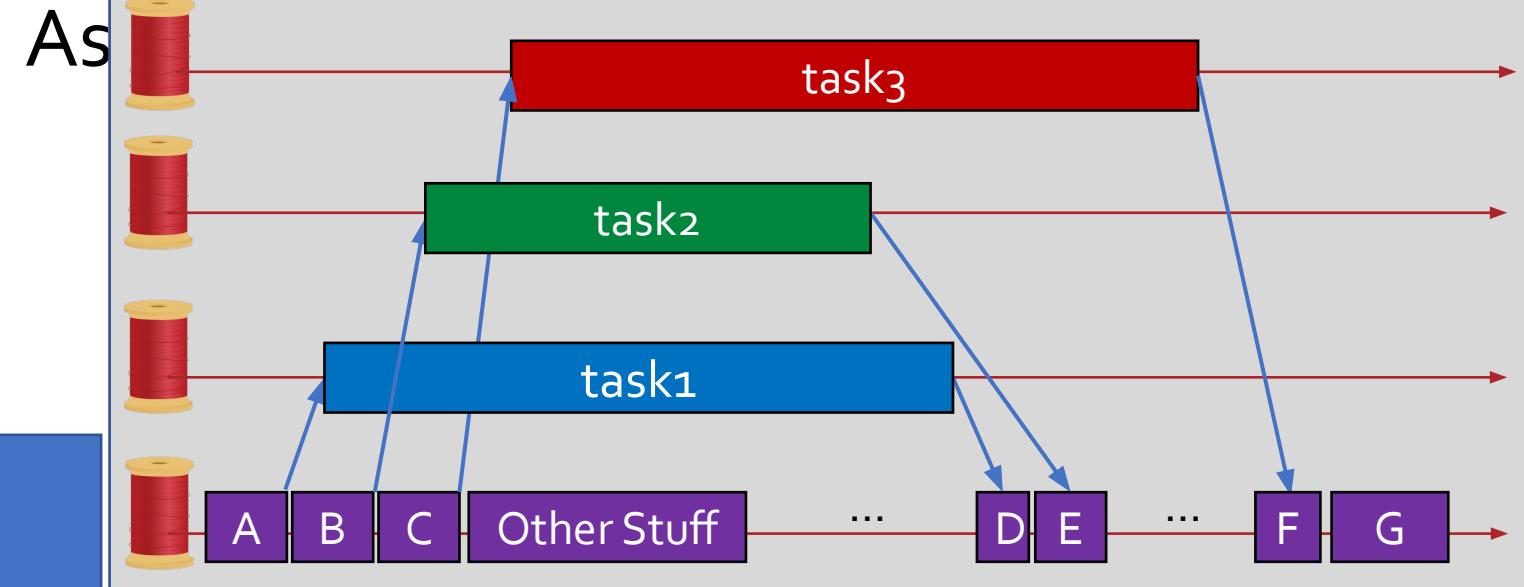
You request execution of three functions in the background. The handle(s) to them are returned.

Now we wait for our three tasks to complete!

Wait for Completion

You may optionally `wait` for your task(s) to complete their execution, and then obtain their results.

Once all three finish, we can use their results.



```
async function run() {
    h1 = launch_async(...);
    h2 = launch_async(...);
    h3 = launch_async(..., tasks);
    ...
    // Do other stuff in the meanwhile...
}
```

```
result1 = await h1;
result2 = await h2;
result3 = await h3;
use_res
```

```
}
```

This immediately launches all three tasks in the background without waiting for them to finish.

```
// D
// E
// F
// G
```

Async/Await

Most languages also allow you to wait on multiple handles at the same time before proceeding, almost like a fork-join.

Launch the Async Function

You request execution of one or more functions in the background and obtain handle(s) to the pending task(s).

Wait for Completion

You may optionally `wait` for your task(s) to complete their execution, and then obtain their result.

```
async function run(data1, data2, data3) {  
    h1 = launch_async task1(data1);  
    h2 = launch_async task2(data2);  
    h3 = launch_async task3(data3);  
  
    ... // Do other stuff in the meanwhile...  
  
    await_all [h1, h2, h3];  
  
    ... // Continue here once task1-task3 finish  
}
```

In JavaScript we define async functions using the `async` keyword.

```
// JavaScript - async/await  
async function doesnt_return_value()  
{  
    // async code that doesn't  
    // need to return a result  
}
```

And only then does it continue executing...

```
}  
  
async function example()  
{  
    h = doesnt_return_value();  
    r = await h;  
}  
  
example();  
other_stuff();
```

However, calling `await` on a handle...

An async function returns a handle that tracks its progress – we can use `await` on it.

Asynchronous Languages: JavaScript

Until the result is available...

Blocks the function...

Calling an async function automatically launches it in the background.

Causes it to run in the background until completion.

`return_value()`

`doesnt_return_value()`

with the next line of code...

in the background until completion.

E

In Kotlin, this is how we define an asynchronous function.

```
# Python async/await
import asyncio
# Python asynchronous
async def doesnt_return_value():
    # async code that doesn't
    # need to return a result
```

```
async def does_return_value():
    # async code that
    # return some result
```

```
async def example():
    asyncio.create_task(doesnt_return_value())
    h = asyncio.create_task(does_return_value())
    r = await h
    # use result value of r here
```

```
asyncio.run(example())
other_stuff();
```

In Python,
how we define
asynchronous function.

Here's how we
an asynchronous

Here's how launch a task in
the background.

Here's how we
complete a task

In Python,
processing

```
// Kotlin async/await example
import kotlinx.coroutines.*
import kotlin.system.*

suspend fun doesnt_return_value() {
    // async code that doesn't
    // need to return a result
}
```

rn_value(): Int {
produces a result

```
suspend fun example() = runBlocking<Unit> {
    async { doesnt_return_value() }
    val h = async { does_return_value() }
    val r = h.await()
    // use result value of r here...
}
```

```
fun main() = runBL
    async { example(
    }
```

Here's how we block
awaiting a result.

Languages have evolved to make this easier

Fork/join (C#, ??)

- used for CPU-bound tasks

Async + callback (javascript, ???): used for UI (app, page), IO

- button example (javascript), create thread to DL page, then call callback

(python) – for UI events, event completion

- IO downloading a page

- event loop: queue them up, schedule on a single thread, block on IO goes to

Fork-join for IO: Async/await (goroutines, async/await javascript): used for IO

- queue of async functions: queue them up, schedule on a single thread, block

on IO goes to next thing on the event loop - callbacks

Promises/Futures

- Javascript example, swift ???

<https://sodocumentation.net/cplusplus/topic/9840/futures-and-promises?fbclid=IwARoBPNvbZnUrX42djSmgyA8QybA1Y9bnsHsXXhs7e1H6JEUVL4-Nf3eU1cw>

Coroutines (python)

```
# python async/await example
import asyncio
```

```
async def asyncfunction():
    print('Hello')
    await asyncio.sleep(10)
    print('World')
    return 10
```

Callback Challenges

Todo

Promise Version of Our Downloader

Create a new promise and provide it with a lambda function to run

The lambda function launches an async task of:

```
    resolve(do_initial_step())
```

The promise is now pending and the current function continues running

We can call a .then() method on a promise which will only run when the initial promise is resolved

The then method takes in a lambda function which is passed the resolved value of the previous promise

The then method may then create a new promise and return it

We can then have another then method call, which uses this new promise

```
function download_data() {
    let o;
    return new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
        setTimeout(() => { resolve(download_data()); }, o);
    });
}

function filter_data(data) {
    return "filter(" + data + ")";
}

function sort_data(data) {
    return "sort(" + data + ")";
}

function display_data(data) {
    console.log(data);
}

function download_filter_sort_show() {
    let promise = new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
        setTimeout(() => { resolve(download_data()); }, o);
    });
    promise.then(function (data) {
        new_prom = new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
            setTimeout(() => { resolve(filter_data(data)); }, o);
        });
        return new_prom;
    })
    .then(function (data) {
        new_prom = new Promise((resolve, reject) => {
            setTimeout(() => { resolve(sort_data(data)); }, o);
        });
        return new_prom;
    })
    .then(function (data) {
        display_data(data);
    })
    console.log('foo');
}

download_filter_sort_show();
console.log('bar');
```

initial promise lambda runs synchronously
all other then()s are queued and run after the
call stack is exhausted
returning a value from a then() wraps it in a
resolved promise as well

Coroutines, Continuations and Generators

```
# Generator example

def countto(n: int):
    print('foo')
    i=0
    while i < n:
        yield i
        i += 1
    # code reaches here or a return and that ends next

# Example use: printing out the integers from 10 to 20.
# Note that this iteration terminates normally, despite
# countfrom() being written as an infinite loop.

for i in countfrom(10):
    if i <= 20:
        print(i)
    else:
        break

or:

gen = countfrom(10) # gen is a python object – the function
isn't run yet
# the first call to next runs the function for the first time until
yield, stores the program counter & closure, then returns the
value
next(gen) #returns 10
# 2nd and beyond calls continues the function just after the
last yield until the next yield, stores the pc & closure, returns
the value
```

Coroutine is one of several procedures that take turns doing their job and then pause to give control to the other coroutines in the group. (C#, Python, Ruby, PHP, JavaScript, Rust, ...)

- <http://www.dabeaz.com/coroutines/Coroutines.pdf>
 - Good comparison to using objects for the same result
- Coroutines are computer program components that generalize subroutines for non-preemptive multitasking, by allowing execution to be suspended and resumed.
- In the case of threads, it's an operating system (or run time environment) that switches between threads according to the scheduler. While in the case of a coroutine, it's the programmer and programming language which decides when to switch coroutines. Coroutines work cooperatively multitask by suspending and resuming at set points by the programmer.
- Subroutines are special cases of coroutines. When subroutines are invoked, execution begins at the start, and once a subroutine exits, it is finished; an instance of a subroutine only returns once, and does not hold state between invocations.
- See: <https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/coroutine-in-python/>

Continuation is a "pointer to a function" you pass to some procedure, to be executed ("continued with") when that procedure is done.



Classify That Language: Concurrency

```
void Page_Load(Object sender, EventArgs e) {  
    Button1.Click += new EventHandler(this.handler1);  
    Button2.Click += new EventHandler(this.handler2);  
}  
  
async void handler1(Object sender, EventArgs e) {  
    var result = await DoQuickOperation();  
    DoSomethingWithResult1(result);  
};  
  
async void handler2(Object sender, EventArgs e) {  
    var result = await Task.Run(() => MultTwoLargeNumbers());  
    DoSomethingWithResult2(result);  
};
```

So while await syntax is used to wait for both operations...

won't noticeably delay the UI.

Task.Run() is used to launch a background thread, running independently of the event loop.

The code to the left runs when a web page is first loaded and sets up callbacks for button clicks.

This language uses **similar syntax** for both multi-threading and event-loop-based concurrency.

Which **button** executes code via the event loop, and which executes code in a background thread? And, fast operations can run in the event loop, since they won't noticeably delay the UI.

This is C#!

Operations cannot run in the event loop, because they'd cause the UI to freeze while they run.

Generators in other languages (PHP, Ruby, C#)

```
#php
function fibonacci()
{
    $last = 0;
    $current = 1;
    yield 1;
    while (true) {
        $current = $last + $current;
        $last = $current - $last;
        yield $current;
    }
}

foreach (fibonacci() as $number) {
    echo $number, "\n";
}
```

```
// C# Method that takes an iterable input (possibly an array)
// and returns all even numbers.
public static IEnumerable<int> GetEven(IEnumerable<int> numbers)
{
    foreach (int number in numbers)
    {
        if ((number % 2) == 0)
        {
            yield return number;
        }
    }
}
```

Iteration

“True” Iterators

- Subroutine with **yield** statements
 - Each **yield** “returns” another element
- Popular, e.g., in Python, Ruby, and C#
- Used in a **for** loop

- Example (Python):

```
# range is a built-in iterator
for i in range(first, last, step):
    ...
```

Example: Binary Tree

```
class BinTree:
    def __init__(self, data):
        self.data = data
        self.lchild = self.rchild = None

    # other methods: insert, delete, lookup, ...

    def preorder(self):
        if self.data is not None:
            yield self.data
            if self.lchild is not None:
                for d in self.lchild.preorder():
                    yield d
            if self.rchild is not None:
                for d in self.rchild.preorder():
                    yield d
```

Iteration

Iterator Objects

- Regular object with **methods** for
 - Initialization
 - Generation of **next** value
 - Test for completion
- Popular, e.g., in Java and C++
- Used in **for** loop

```
for (Iterator i = c.iterator(); i.hasNext(); ) {  
    ... = i.next();  
}
```

```
for (Element e : c) {  
    ...  
}
```

- Regular object with **methods** for
 - Initialization
 - Generation of **next** value
 - Test for completion
- Popular, e.g., in Java and C++
- Used in **for** loop

```
for (Iterator i = c.iterator(); i.hasNext(); ) {  
    ... = i.next();  
}
```



Classify That Language: Iteration

Consider the following program...

TODO



This is ???!

Iterating with First-Class Functions

■ Two functions

- One function about **what to do for each element**
- Another function that **calls** the first function **for each element**

■ Example (Scheme):

```
(define uptoBy
  (lambda (low high step f)
    (if (<= low high)
        (begin
          (f low)
          (uptoBy (+ low step) high step f))
        '()))))
```

Iterating with First-Class Functions (2)

- Originally, proposed in **functional languages**
- Nowadays, **available** in many modern PLs through **libraries**

- E.g., Java

```
mySet.stream().filter(e -> e.someProp > 5)
```

- E.g., JavaScript

```
myArray.filter(e => e.someProp > 5)
```

Continuations

In low-level terms, a continuation consists of a code address and a referencing environment to be restored when jumping to that address. In higher-level terms, a continuation is an abstraction that captures a context in which execution might continue. Continuations are fundamental to denotational semantics. They also appear as first-class values in certain languages (notably Scheme and Ruby), allowing the programmer to define new control-flow constructs.

The implementation of continuations in Scheme and Ruby is surprisingly straightforward. Because local variables have unlimited extent in both languages, activation records must in general be allocated on the heap. As a result, explicit deallocation is neither required nor appropriate when jumping through a continuation; frames that are no longer accessible will eventually be reclaimed by a general purpose garbage collector (to be discussed in Section 7.7.3). Restoration of state (e.g., saved registers) from escaped routines is not required either: the continuation closure holds everything required to resume the captured context.

Multiprocessing

Cooperative multitasking, co-routines

9.13 Coroutines 407

- A coroutine is a subprogram that has **multiple** entries and exits directly in Lua
- The coroutine control mechanism is often called the symmetric model because coroutines are more equitable
- It also has the means to maintain their status between activations
- This means that coroutines must be **history sensitive** and thus have a memory of their previous activations
- Secondary executions of a coroutine often begin at points other than its entry point
- The invocation of a coroutine is named a **resume** rather than a **call**
- The first resume of a coroutine is to its beginning, but subsequent resumes start after the last executed statement in the coroutine
- Coroutines repeatedly resume each other, possibly forever
- Coroutines provide quasi-concurrent execution of program code. Their execution is interleaved, but not overlapped

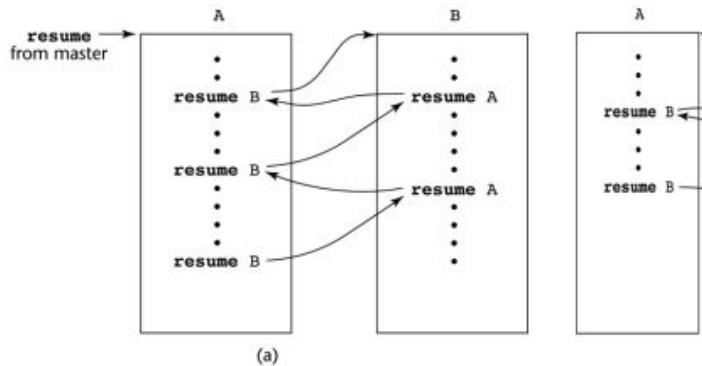


Figure 9.3 Two possible execution control sequences for two coroutines



Lazy Evaluation/Short Circuiting

5.1.1 Lazy evaluation

Evaluating expressions with boolean operators (and, or, not) is another area where the value of an expression is not well-defined without a semantic definition. Consider the expression below.

```
if( a || (b && c && d) )  
/* do something */;
```

The values a, b, c, and d may all be functions, possibly even functions that require lots of resources to

compute. Note that, if a is true, then the rest of the expression is irrelevant to the truth of the entire statement. Only if a is false, does the rest of the statement require evaluation. The expression (b && c &&

d) also permits lazy evaluation, because if any of the individual items are false, the entire statement is

1. *sequencing*: Statements are to be executed (or expressions evaluated) in a certain specified order—usually the order in which they appear in the program text.
2. *selection*: Depending on some run-time condition, a *choice* is to be made among two or more statements or expressions. The most common selection constructs are *if* and *case* (*switch*) statements. Selection is also sometimes referred to as *alternation*.
3. *iteration*: A given fragment of code is to be executed repeatedly, either a certain number of times or until a certain run-time condition is true. Iteration constructs include *while*, *do*, and *repeat* loops.
4. *procedural abstraction*: A potentially complex collection of control constructs (a *subroutine*) is encapsulated in a way that allows it to be treated as a single unit, often subject to parameterization.
5. *recursion*: An expression is defined in terms of (simpler versions of) itself, either directly or indirectly; the computational model requires a stack on which to save information about partially evaluated instances of the expression. Recursion is usually defined by means of self-referential subroutines.
6. *concurrency*: Two or more program fragments are to be executed/evaluated “at the same time,” either in parallel on separate processors or interleaved on a single processor in a way that achieves the same effect.
7. *nondeterminacy*: The ordering or choice among statements or expressions is deliberately left unspecified, implying that any alternative will lead to correct results. Some languages require the choice to be random, or fair, in some formal sense of the word.

- First Lecture
 - Short circuiting (sidefx)
 - Looping mechanisms, break, continue?
- Second lecture
 - generators in python/yield
 - Concurrency
 - Ownership (rust)
 - Fork/join
 - Global Interpreter Lock
- Parking lot
 - “definite assignment” compiler checking that a variable is assigned across all dynamically at runtime

Iteration: Looping With a Counter

```
// Perl
for(my $x = 1; $x <= 5; $x++) {
    for(my $y = 1; $y <= $x; $y++) {
        print "*";
    }
    print "\n";
}
```

Are the values iterators

Conditionals: Beyond If Statements

First let's discuss the **conditional ternary operator**:

Here are its semantics: If `b`

```
// C++, C#, Java, JavaScript, Swift, etc.  
beverage = age < 21 ? "Coke" : "Beer"
```



This is called the *elvis operator* because if you turn it on its side, it looks like Elvis!



There are

Here

```
// C#, JavaScript  
my_bev = drink
```

```
if (article == null)  
    name = null  
else if (article.co_author == null)  
    name = null  
else  
    name = article.co_author.name
```

Finally, some

languages support an inline version of this operator!

```
// C#, Kotlin, JavaScript, Swift, ...  
name = article?.co_author?.name
```

```
# Ruby's slightly different syntax  
name = article&.co_author&.name
```



Classify That Language: Multi-way Selection

```
let fraction = (5, 6)
...
switch fraction {
    case let (num, denom) where denom == 0:
        print("The value is infinity")
    case let (num, denom) where num >= denom:
        print("\(num/denom) is greater than 1")
    case let (num, denom):
        print("\(num/denom) is a fraction")
}
```

Consider the following program...

TODO

This is Swift!

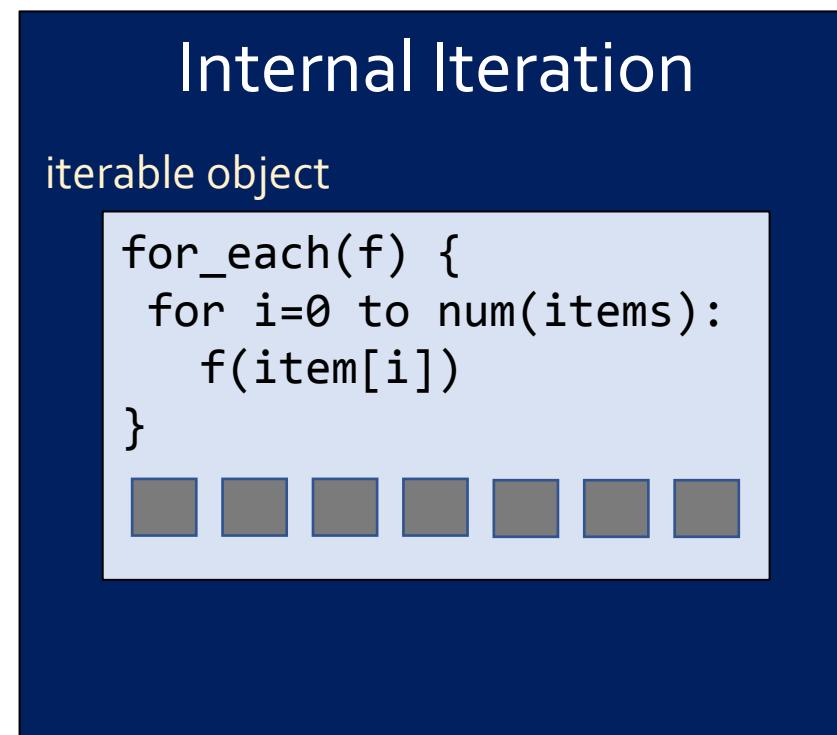
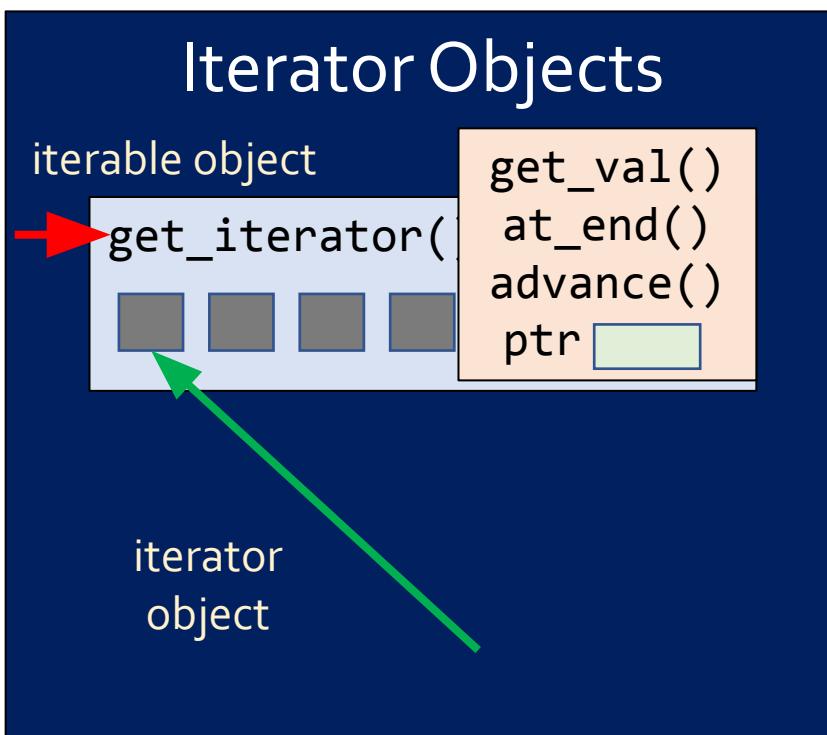
Looping and Iterators

Next let's learn how iteration actually is implemented under the hood:

```
vector<string> fruits = {"plum", "pear", ...};  
for (auto f: fruits)  
    cout << f << endl;
```

```
for i in range(1,10):  
    print(i)
```

There are two high-level approaches:



Iterators

What's the big picture?



An **iterable class** is one which contains a collection of values that can be processed sequentially.

Examples: [arrays](#), [lists](#), [sets](#), [maps](#), [ranges](#)

In OOP languages, we use an abstraction called an "**iterator**" to **point at**, **retrieve**, and **advance** through the values in an iterable object.

```
set<string> nerds;
... // add items to nerds set

set<string>::iterator it;
it = nerds.begin();
while (it != nerds.end()) {
    cout << *it << endl;
    ++it;
}
```

Concurrency Approaches

Let's break down the high-level approaches to concurrency in modern languages.

Full Multithreading

A program may launch any number of threads, and their execution is interleaved across available cores

C++, Java, C#, Kotlin, Rust, etc.

Limited Multithreading

The language supports concurrent execution, but there are constraints preventing some kinds of parallelism

Python

Simulated Multithreading

The language supports concurrent execution, but all execution is actually limited to a single thread

JavaScript, TypeScript, etc.

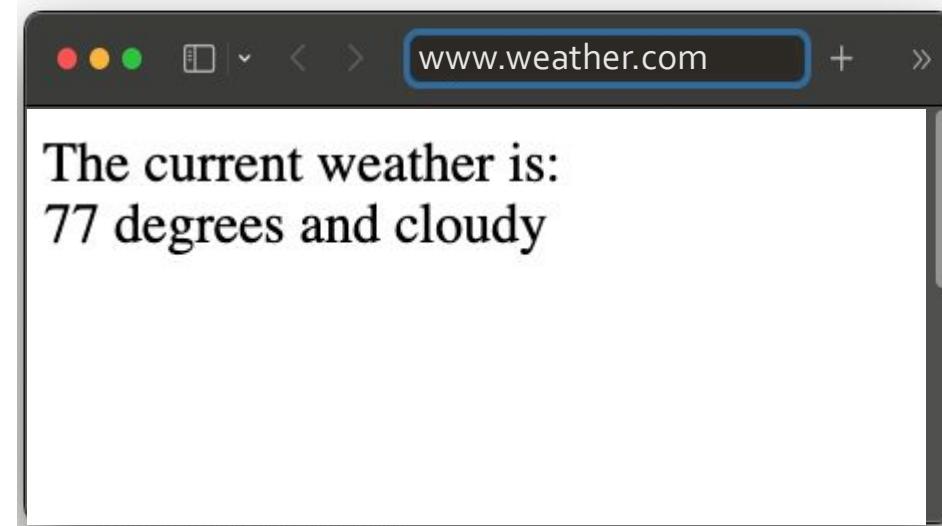
```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
function update_weather_text(txt)
{ document.getElementById("weather").innerHTML = txt; }

function update_ui_when_data_arrives()
{ update_weather_text(this.responseText); }

function download_weather() {
    var req = new XMLHttpRequest(); req
    req.onreadystatechange = update_ui_when_data_arrives;
    req.open("GET", "https://www.weather.com/...", true);
    req.send(); // starts execution in background
}

download_weather()
update_weather_text("Retrieving weather...")
</script>
</body></html>
```



onreadystatechange
req
responseText
"77 degrees and cloudy"



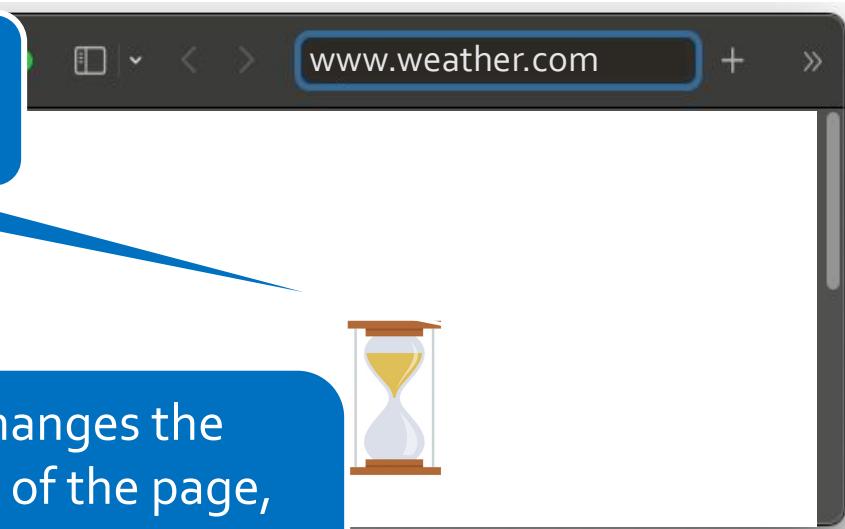
Updating the display
doesn't happen until the
next iteration.

```
# Browser pseudo-code
def render_browser_UI():
    while True:
        display_UI_in_browser()
        check_for_mouse_and_keyboard_events()
        run_next_js_statement_to_completion()
```

Programming Without Concurrency

of how a
ency wou

The browser hangs until
the operation finishes!



This is called a
"blocking" operation.

```
<div><h1>The weather is:</h1>
<div id="weather">weather data</div>
<script>
function update_weather(data) { ... }
data = download("www.weather.com/...");
update_weather(data);
</script>

</body></html>
```

UI Pro

Execution continues immediately in our browser main loop!

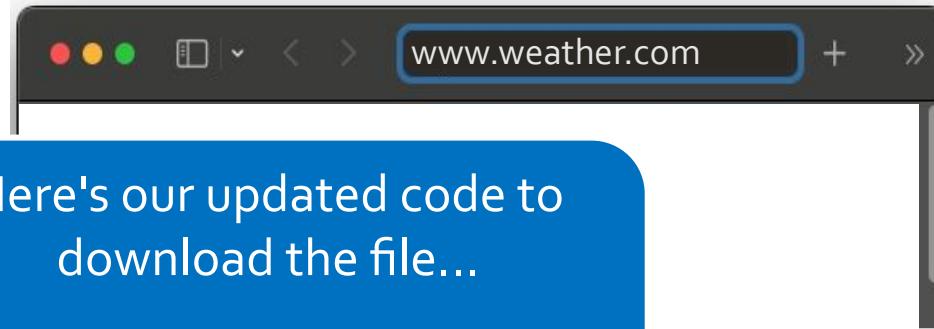
```
# Browser pseudocode
def render_browser_UI():
    while True:
        display_UI_in_browser()
        check_for_mouse_and_keyboard_()
        run_next_js_statement_to_comp
```

When the file is downloading...

And we'll add a status update to our page so the user knows what's happening.

callback

Concurrency and Callbacks



Here's our updated code to download the file...

Our downloader will call the callback to update the page contents with the temperature, etc.

This changes the contents of the page, but it hasn't updated the page just yet!

version that can run in the background...

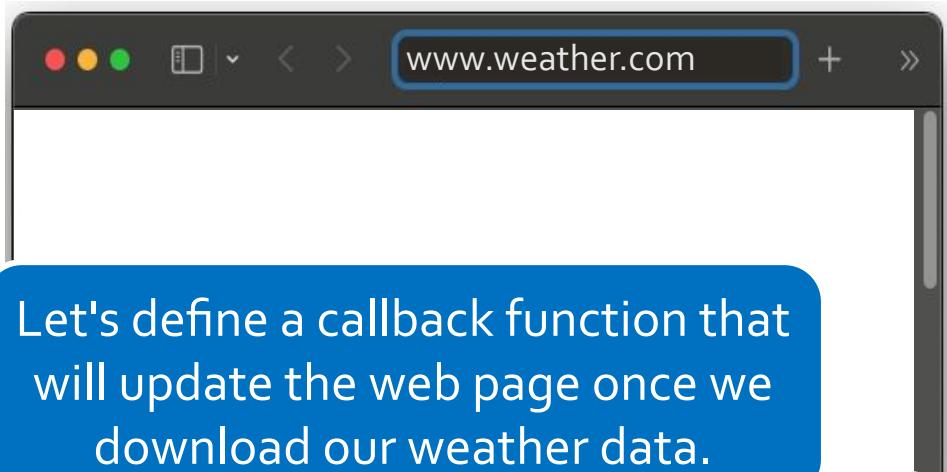
at we passed our weather() function as a parameter.

```
<html>
    <div>The current weather is:</div>
    <div id="weather"></div>
</html>

<script>
function update_weather(data) {
    var weather = document.getElementById("weather");
    weather.innerHTML = data;
}

data = download_concur("www.weather.com/...", update_weather);
update_weather("Downloading data...");
</script>
</body></html>
```

UI Programming With Concurrency and Callbacks



Let's define a callback function that will update the web page once we download our weather data.

When the file finishes downloading...

And we'll add a status update to our page so the user knows what's happening.

Our downloader will call the callback to update the page contents with the temperature, etc.

This launches a downloader in the background.

Notice that we pass our show_weather() callback as a parameter.

callback

```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="wthr_txt">No weather data</div>
```

Let's use a version of the downloader that can run concurrently (in the background).

```
</script>
</body></html>
```

The worker calls this function if it has a successful result.

Solu

The worker calls this function if it has an error.

stage has two parts:

```
function worker_for_stage_x(resolve_fn, reject_fn) {  
  output = do_the_actual_work_for_stage_x();  
  if (was_successful(output))  
    resolve_fn("Stage x succeeded!");  
  else  
    reject_fn("Stage x failed!");  
}
```

This function creates a new Promise object.

The worker does its work.

```
function stage_x()  
{  
  p = Promise(  
    lambda (res, rej)  
      run_in_background worker_for_stage_x(resolve_fn, reject_fn)  
    );  
  return p;  
}
```

And passes in a lambda function that calls the worker.

First, we define a worker function that does the actual work.

The worker takes two functions as its arguments.

Next, we create a separate function that creates a promise for this stage of the pipeline.

What's a Promise?

A promise is an object that launches an asynchronous task and tracks its status.

When you create a Promise object, you give it a lambda function to run.

The Promise object c'tor runs the lambda function, which is responsible for kicking off a background task.

Then the promise constructor then immediately returns, and execution resumes with the next statement.

At some later point, the task finishes (in the background) and sends its output/status back to the promise object.

At this point, the promise is fulfilled.

A promise object may have subscribers.

You may register a lambda function that runs once a lambda completes

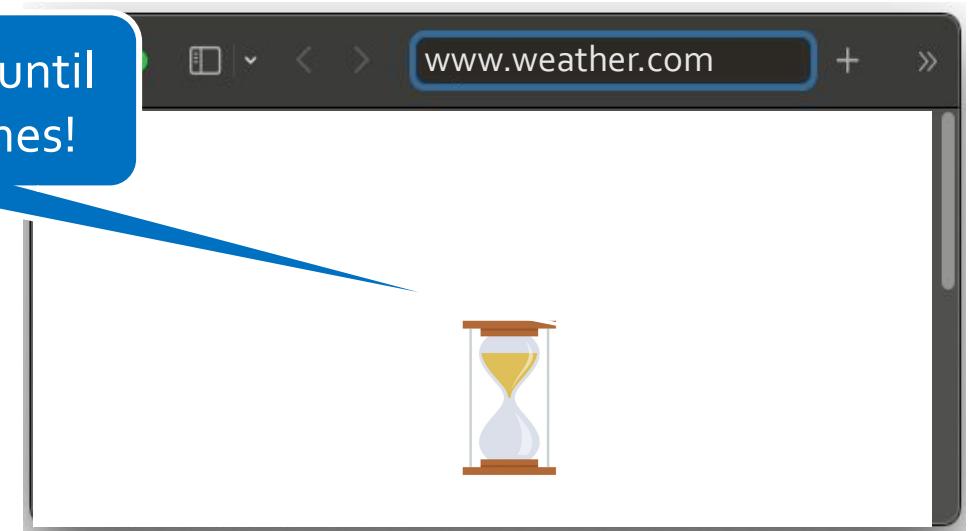
For the gory details, see a great explanation from Timothy Gu in the slide notes!

UI Programming Without Concurrency 2

Here's an example of how java doesn't use concurrency well.

The browser hangs until the operation finishes!

Clearly, if we have to run a function that takes a while to run, it'll freeze our UI.



So we have to figure out a way to run such a function in the background. This is called a "blocking" operation.

And then get the result once it's done.

This way, the rest of the page can continue handling user interaction without stalling.

```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
function update_html(tag,value) { ... }

download("www.weather.com/...", 
  lambda (data) {
    update_html("weather", data); });
// other javascript code...
```

What's a Promise?

A Promise is an object that launches a task, tracks its execution, and receives its result once the task completes.

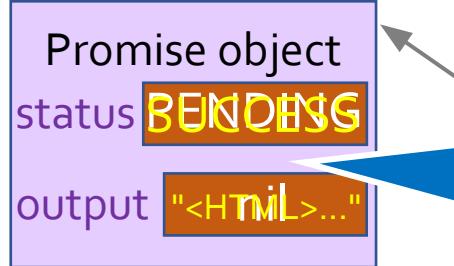
When you create a Promise object, you pass it a lambda function to run – the

The Promise object runs the lambda function, which laun

Then the Promise's constructor immediately returns, and the main program resumes normally.

At some later point, the background task finishes and sends its output/status back to its Promise object.

At this point, the Promise is "fulfilled," meaning the background task has delivered its result to the Promise.



`n = Promise(lambda`

ground `task(data, ...); }`

`task()`

When it's not shown here, the task is also passed information on its Promise, so it can report status.



c'tor → program resumes...

```
function task(data, my_promise) {  
  ...  
  my_promise.i_succeeded(output);  
}
```

Sarcastic Robot Says:



"Many built-in language libraries automatically support promises, making them easy to use with simple syntax."

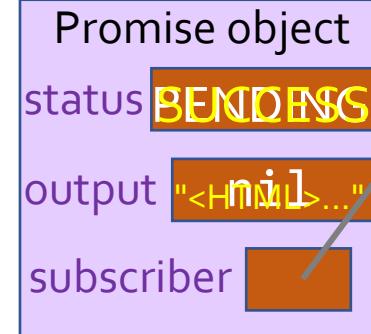
But wait 'til you have to write your own! :/"

To add a subscriber, you register a lambda function with the Promise object, e.g., p.then(...).

When a Promise is fulfilled, it passes the output/status of the task it was tracking to its subscriber.

The subscriber creates a new Promise to process a new task to process the previous stage's output.

You can chain together many subscribers, creating a pipeline of asynchronous routines to process data.



lambda (x)
{ return task2(x); }

```
p = Promise(...);  
p.then(lambda (x) { task2(x); });
```

task() --> <HTML>... --> task2()

This means: "Once the Promise is fulfilled, please call this lambda function with its output."
Once you've constructed your pipeline, it executes entirely in the background!

```
p = Promise(...);  
p.then(lambda (x) { task2(x); })  
.then(lambda (y) { task3(y); })  
.then(...)
```

nil

Callbacks Can Get Ugly (exp)

```
function download_in_background_then_run_cb(url, callback1) {  
    run_in_background {  
        data = connect_and_download_data(url)  
        callback1(data)  
    }  
}  
  
function filter_and_sort_data(data, callback2) {  
    run_in_background {  
        fdata = filter_data(data)  
        sdata = sort_data(fdata)  
        callback2(sdata)  
    }  
}  
  
function reorder_data(sdata, callback3) {  
    run_in_background {  
        rdata = reorder(sdata)  
        callback3(rdata);  
    }  
}  
  
function display_in_ui(sdata) { ... }
```

Our first function

Once it's done we ask it to run a **callback** to initiate the next stage of processing.

Once it's done we ask it to launch a callback to do the next stage of processing, which might need data.

That final stage might display the data in the UI.

Once it's done we ask it to run a callback to initiate the last stage of processing.

Often, we need to chain a bunch of slow background operations together with multiple callbacks, e.g.:

download a file,
then filter the data,
then sort the remaining data,
then update the UI.

For example, consider the following functions...

To do chain functions like this, people use **lambdas**.

Let's see!

Let's see how we do end-to-end processing and display our data.

Callbacks Can Get Ugly (exp)

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_in_background_then_run_cb(  
        url,  
        lambda (data) { /* runs filter step in background */  
            sort_and_display(data);  
        }  
    );  
}
```

The first thing we do is call our download function.

The lambda calls the

It sorts the filtered data.

For our callback, we pass in a lambda that performs the final plotting step.

For our callback, we want to pass a

The lambda will be called with the downloaded data once we finish downloading the file.

Let's see the details of this lambda function.

Let's see the details of this lambda function.

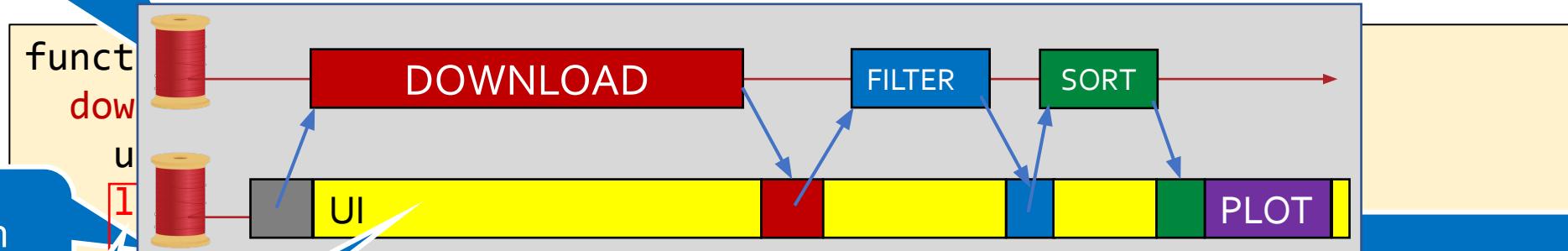
details of this function.

For our callback, we want to pass a lambda that launches the sorting step in the background.

Callbacks Can Get Ugly (exp) - TODO

Once we finish
downloading, In this way, we...

When a task finishes, it runs its callback to launch the next background task.



Once we finish
filtering the data...

We run a callback that sorts the data...

This enables us to run a callback that filters the data...
g.

We run a callback that displays the data...

Solution #3: Async/Await

```
function download_data(url){  
    while (!done) {  
        get_data()  
        save_data()  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function filter_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        foo();  
        bar();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function sort_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        divide();  
        conquer();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

Launch the Async Function

You request execution of one or more functions in the background and obtain handle(s) to the pending task(s).

Wait for Completion

You may optionally wait for your task(s) to complete their execution, and then obtain their result.

```
async function run(data1, data2, data3) {  
    h1 = run_async task1(data1);  
    h2 = run_async task2(data2);  
    h3 = run_async task3(data3);  
  
    ... // Do other stuff in the meanwhile...  
  
    result1 = await h1 # block until task1 is done  
    result2 = await h2 # block until task2 is done  
    result3 = await h3 # block until task3 is done  
    use_results(result1, result2, result3)  
}
```

Callbacks Can Get Ugly

```
function download_data(url, callback1) {  
    run_in_background {  
        data = connect_and_download_data(url)  
        callback1(data)  
    }  
}  
  
function filter_data(data, callback2) {  
    run_in_background {  
        fdata = filter_the_data(data)  
        callback2(fdata)  
    }  
}  
  
function reorder_data(data, callback3) {  
    run_in_background {  
        sdata = sort_the_remaining_data(data)  
        callback3(sdata);  
    }  
}  
  
function display_in_ui(sdata) { ... }
```

Our first function

Once it's done we ask it to run a **callback** to initiate the next stage of processing.

Once it's done we ask it to launch a callback to do the next stage of processing.

That final stage might display the data in the UI.

last stage of processing.

Often we need to chain a bunch of slow background operations together with multiple callbacks, e.g.:

download a file,
then filter the data,
then sort the remaining data,
then update the UI.

For example, consider the following functions...

To do chain functions like this,
people use **lambdas**.

Let's see!

Callbacks Can Get Ugly

Let's see how we do this with data.

The first thing we do is call the `download_data()` function.

```
function reorder_data(fdata, callback3) {  
    run_in_background {  
        sdata = sort(fdata)  
        callback3(sdata);  
    }  
}
```

The lambda will be called with the filtered data when it's ready.

downloaded data once we finish downloading the file.

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data() {  
    url = ...  
    download_data(url,  
        lambda (data) {  
            * runs filter step in background  
            filter_data(data, lambda (d) {  
                * runs sort step in background  
                reorder_data(d, lambda (r) {  
                    * runs plot step in background  
                    plot(r);  
                });  
            });  
        }1  
    );  
}
```

The lambda calls the `filter_data()` function.

For our callback, we pass in a lambda that launches the filtering step in the background.

For our callback, we want to pass a lambda that performs the sorting step in the background.

For our callback, we want to pass a lambda that performs the final plotting step.

Let's see the details of this lambda function.

Let's see the details of this lambda function.

Callbacks Can Get Ugly

In this way, we break what would be one long task into a series of shorter background tasks.

Once we finish
downloading the data

```
function download_data(url, ui) {
```

When a task finishes, we run a callback that

launches the next background task.

DOWNLOAD

FILTER

SORT

PLOT

Once we finish

This enables the UI to
keep running while
we're doing processing.

Once we finish
filtering the data...

```
    lambda (data) {
```

```
        filter_data(data,
```

```
        lambda (fdata) {
```

```
            reorder_data(fdata,
```

```
            lambda (sdata) {
```

```
                display_in_ui(sdata);
```

```
}
```

```
};
```

```
});
```

```
}
```

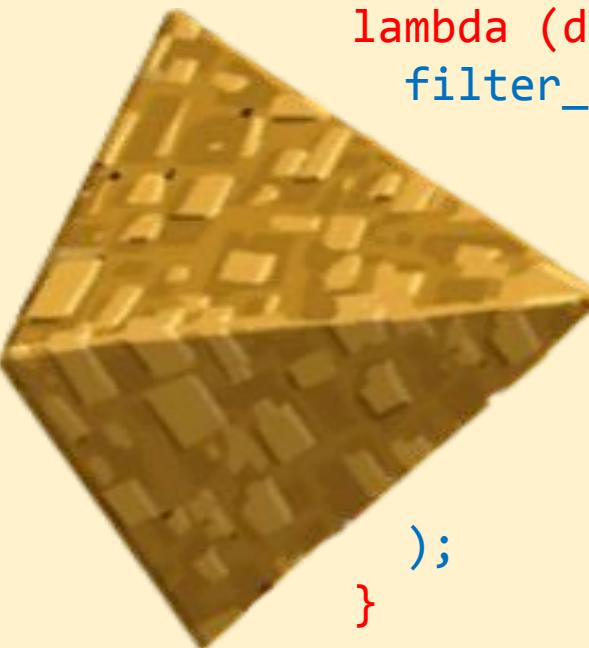
Callbacks Can Get Ugly

Unfortunately, this nesting can get ugly!

In fact, it's so nasty, it has a name: "callback hell" or "pyramid of doom."

So of course, programming language designers came up with a better alternative.

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data() {  
    url = ...  
    download_data(url,  
                  lambda (data) {  
                      filter_data(data,  
                                   lambda (fdata) {  
                                       reorder_data(fdata,  
                                                    lambda (sdata) {  
                                                        display_in_ui(sdata);  
                                                    }  
                                   );  
                      }  
                  );  
    }  
};
```



Solution #2: Promises

In our previ

Note: You can only use this syntax if you modify these functions to use "Promise objects"!

Wouldn't it

then filter the data, and then use the data in the UI.

than callbacks? How about this?

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (sorted_data) { ui(sorted_data); } )  
}
```

This chunk of code defines a

Each phase of the "pipeline of operations" does its work (in the background), produces a result, and the framework passes that result to the next lambda in the pipeline.

This uses an approach called "Promises."

This chunk of code defines a pipeline of operations.

When you run it, it doesn't run sequentially!

Execution #2: Promises
Execution of the pipeline happens concurrently!

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (sorted_data) { update_ui(sorted_data); } )  
}  
  
do_first_thing()  
display_sorted_f  
while (!done) {  
    do_other_stuff();  
    do_even_more_stuff();  
}
```

This pipeline won't run to completion here!
It's just started here, and runs in the background.

```
function download_data(url){  
    while (!done) {  
        get_data()  
        save_data()  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function filter_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        foo();  
        bar();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function sort_data(data) {  
    while (!done) {  
        divide();  
        conquer();  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

```
function update_ui(data) {  
    ...  
}
```

The **Promise** approach is syntactic sugar for callbacks!

If this step of the pipeline

If this step of the pipeline generates an error.

Solution #2: Promises

OK, what about dealing with errors?

→ do so, we use an "exception-like" syntax – but it's not exceptions!

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    download_data(url)  
        .then(lambda (downloaded_data) { filter_data(downloaded_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (filtered_data) { sort_data(filtered_data); } )  
        .then(lambda (sorted_data) { update_ui(sorted_data); } )  
        .catch(lambda (error) => { address_all_errors(error); } )  
}
```

This catch error

And if you don't catch something in-line, you can also catch errors from any phase of the pipeline at the end.

This catch error
handler runs...

Although this provides less error-handling granularity, and thus should be avoided.

Promises – Easy to Consume, Hard to Build From Scratch

Many languages have libraries that are built on-top of promises.

For example, if you use JavaScript's `fetch()` function, it supports the `.then()` and `.catch()` syntax automatically!

```
function loadContent () {
  fetch("https://www.foo.com/")
    .then((result) => {
      if (result.status != 200) {
        throw new Error("Bad Server Response");
      }
      return result.text();
    })
    .then((content) => {
      set_text("field", content);
    })
}
```

If you'd like to learn more about Promises, see Timothy Gu's awesome writeup in the slide notes below.

But if you have to build functions from scratch to support Promises, things get much more confusing.

Promises In Different Languages

```
function loadContent () {
  fetch("https://www.foo.com/")
    .then((result) => {
      if (result.status != 200) {
        throw new Error("Bad Server Response");
      }
      return result.text();
    })
    .then((content) => {
      set_text("field", content);
    })
}
```

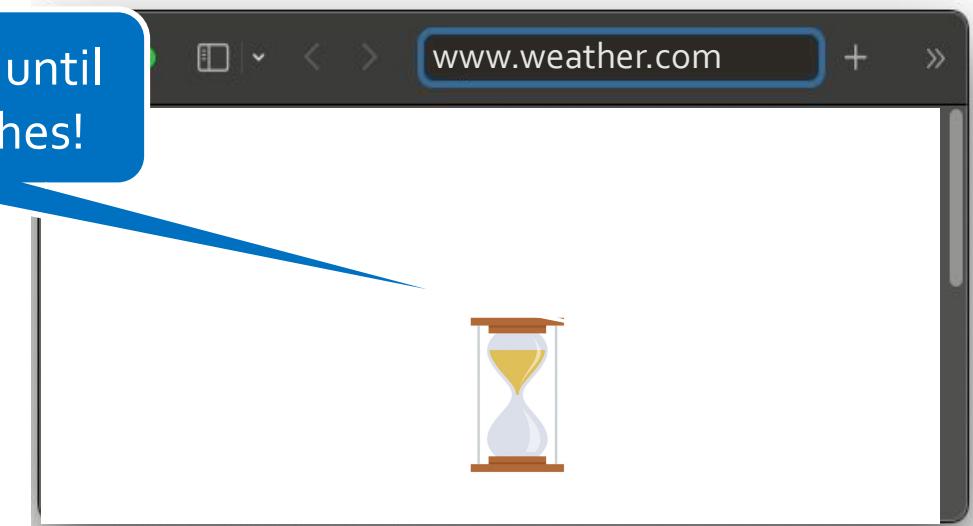
TODO Another language

UI Programming Without Concurrency

Here's an example of how java doesn't use concurrency well.

The browser hangs until the operation finishes!

Clearly, if we have to run a function that takes a while to run, it'll freeze our UI.



So we have to figure out a way to run such a function in the background. This is called a "blocking" operation.

And then get the result once it's done.

This way, the rest of the page can continue handling user interaction without stalling.

```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
  data = download("www.weather.com/...");
  update_html("weather", data);
  // other javascript code...
  // ...
</script>
</body></html>
```

Callbacks

Idea: You run a long-running task in the background, and give it call a "callback" function to call when it finishes; the callback updates the UI with the task's results.

pseudocode showing use of callbacks

```
def call_when_done(result):
    # does something with the result
    update_webpage_with_results(result)

def task(callback_fn):
    result = some_long_running_op()
    callback_fn(result)

run_in_background task(call_when_done)

while page_is_not_closed():
    handle_user_interactions_with_page()
```

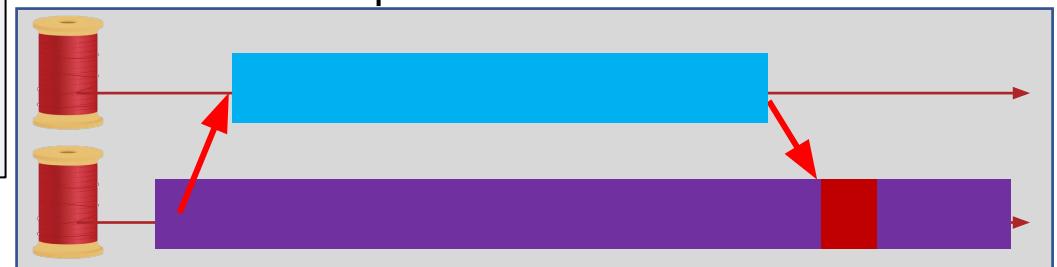
The **callback** function accepts a parameter which is the **result** of a task – it uses the result to update the UI.

This would correspond to downloading the file in the previous slide.

function performs an **operation**, **result**, and then calls the **callback** function with the result.

You launch your task so it runs concurrently with the main thread.

Now your main program can **continue running** and get notified when the task is complete via the callback.



Example: Handling Button Clicks

```
<html>
<body>
<h1>Button: </h1>
```

The programmer defines a UI element like a button...

```
<p>This is what I think:</p>
<p id="truth">USC is great</p>
<button onclick="callbk();">Click Me</button>
```

And tells the button what callback function to call...

```
<script>
function callbk() {
    document.getElementById("truth").innerHTML +=
        "ly overrated";
}
</script>

</body>
</html>
```

Callback functions are also used to handle user-driven events in the browser.

This includes the user **clicking buttons**, **dragging items**, etc.

When an action occurs, like the button is clicked.



Stringing Background Ops Together (hide?)

```
function download_data(url, callback1) {  
    run_in_background {  
        data = connect_and_download_data(url)  
        add_to_run_queue callback1(data)  
    }  
}  
  
function filter_data(data, callback2) {  
    run_in_background {  
        fdata = filter_data(data)  
        add_to_run_queue callback2(fdata);  
    }  
}  
  
function sort_data(fdata, callback3) {  
    run_in_background {  
        sdata = sort(fdata)  
        add_to_run_queue callback3(sdata);  
    }  
}  
  
function display_in_ui(sdata) { ... }
```

Here's pseudocode for what's happening.

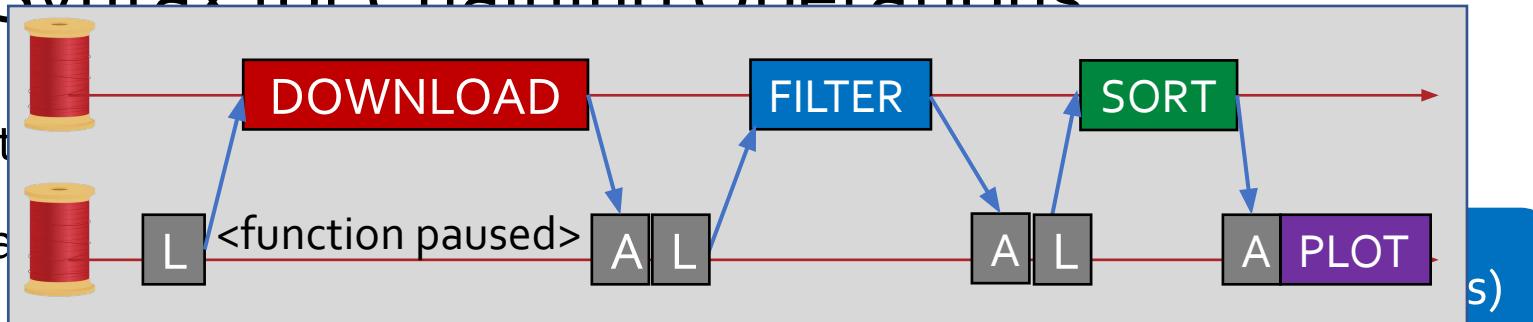
To accomplish this with "real" code,
the syntax is actually much uglier.

Let's see!

Async/Await Syntax for Chaining Operations

The **Async/Await** model is yet another way to chain operations.

When you use this pattern,



Launch the Async Function

You request execution of one or more functions in the background and obtain handle(s) to the pending task(s).

Wait for Completion

You may optionally **wait** for your task(s) to complete their execution, and then obtain their result.

...use the handles, too, even simpler syntax!

```
function display_sorted_filtered_data(url) {  
    data = await launch_async download_data(url);  
    fdata = await launch_async filter_data(data);  
    sdata = await launch_async sort_data(fdata);  
    update_ui(sdata);  
}
```

After launch, the current function continues running

This provides the same semantics as our promise-based code!

Once we get a result, the thread continues executing.

The code looks synchronous, but in fact it's asynchronous!

Async/Await Syntax for Chaining Operations

Most languages also allow you to wait on multiple handles at the same time before proceeding, almost like a fork-join.

Launch the Async Function

You request execution of a function in the background and obtain a handle to the pending task.

Wait for Completion

You may optionally wait for your launched task to complete its execution, and then obtain its result.

```
async function run(data1, data2, data3) {  
    h1 = launch_async task1(data1);  
    h2 = launch_async task2(data2);  
    h3 = launch_async task3(data3);  
  
    ... // Do other stuff in the meanwhile...  
  
    await_all [h1, h2, h3];  
  
    ... // Continue here once task1-task3 finish  
}
```

Short Circuiting

Virtually all modern languages have some form of short-circuiting.

And some even provide syntax for both options so you can choose to **use it** or **not**.

```
// Kotlin
fun main() {
    val cute = true; val smart = false; val rich = true;
    if (cute == true || smart == true || rich == true)
        print("Only evaluates the first term\n");
    if (cute == true or smart == true or rich == true)
        print("ALWAYS evaluates all three terms!\n");
}
```

The code demonstrates two ways to implement short-circuiting in an if statement. The first version uses the standard logical OR operator (||), which only evaluates the second term if the first is false. The second version uses the logical OR operator (or), which always evaluates both terms. Red annotations highlight the differences between the two approaches.

Models for Concurrency

There are two primary approaches for implementing concurrency:

Threading Model

Your program creates multiple "threads" of execution that run concurrently (potentially in parallel).

The programmer explicitly "launches" one or more functions in their own threads, and the OS schedules their execution across available CPU cores.

```
// Multi-threaded program (pseudocode)
void handle_user_purchase(User u, Item i) {
    if (bill_credit_card(u) == SUCCESS) {
        create_thread(schedule_shipping(u, i));
        create_thread(send_confirm_email(u, i));
    }
}
```

Event Driven Model

A program is a list of associations, each between an event (e.g., the user clicked a UI button) and a `function f()` that must be called when that event occurs.

After initial `setup`, functions are run if/when a related event occurs that triggers the function's execution.

```
// Event-driven program (pseudocode)
function process_payment() { ... }

void setup_event_associations() {
    button = create_new_button("Pay Now!");
    button.set_func(ON_CLICK, process_payment);
}
```

Event Loops, Callbacks and I/O: Example

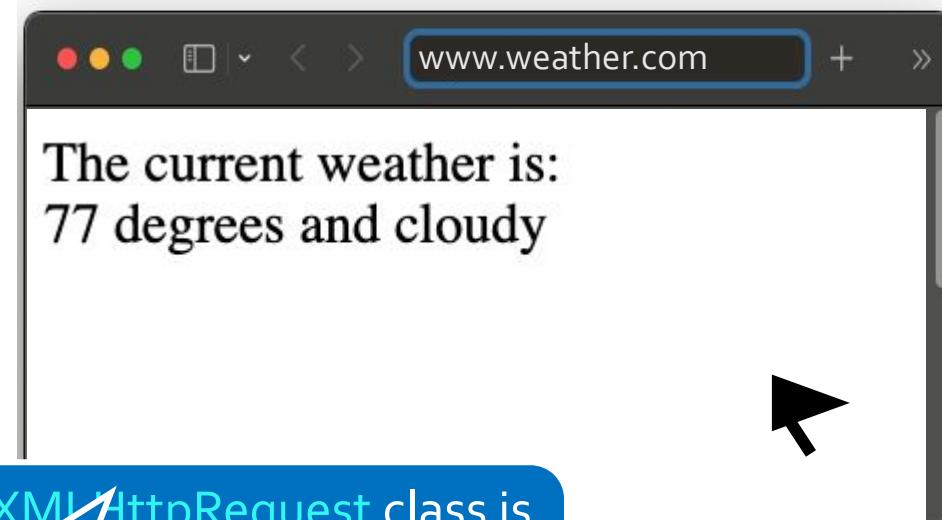
```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
function update_weather_text(txt) { ... }

function update_ui_when_data_arrives()
  update_weather_text(this.responseText); }

function download_weather() {
  request();
  : update_ui_when_data_arrives();
  /www.weather.com
  execution in background
}

download_weather()
update_weather_text("Retrieving weather...")
</script>
</body></html>
```



That callback can update the page's text with the latest weather.

This XMLHttpRequest class is used to download internet concurrently.

Meanwhile, the user can interact with the page – clicking buttons, etc.

We must specify a callback function to call once the data has been downloaded.



Event Loops, Callbacks and I/O: Example



```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>
    function update_weather_in_ui() {
        /* code to update the weather UI */
    }

    function download_weather() {
        var req = new XMLHttpRequest();
        req.onreadystatechange = handleWeatherData;
        req.open("GET", "https://api.weatherapi.com/v1/current.json");
        req.send(); // starts the request
    }

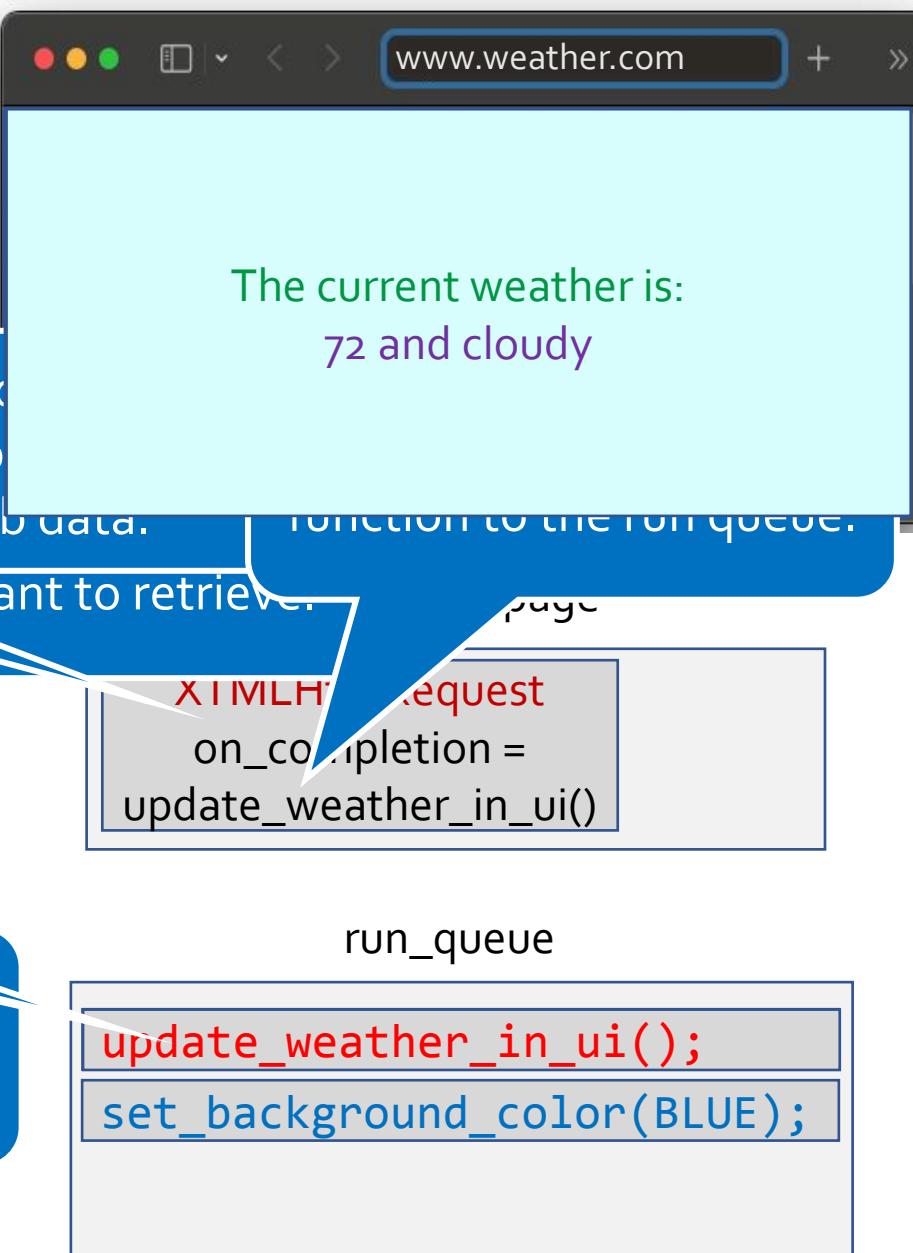
    download_weather();
    set_background_image();
}

</script>
</body></html>
```

A few seconds later, a web request is sent to the event loop.

We then dequeue the function call and run it when the completion event is triggered.

Our function continues running immediately... 



Event Loops and Sequences of Callbacks

```
<html><body>
<div>The current weather is:</div>
<div id="weather">No weather data</div>

<script>

function update_weather_in_ui()
{ /* code to update the weather field */ }

function download_weather() {
  var req = new XMLHttpRequest();
  req.onreadystatechange = update_weather_in_ui;
  req.open("GET", "https://www.weather.com/...", true);
  req.send();
}

download_weather();
set_background_color(BLUE);

</script>
</body></html>
```

In this example, we saw how to run a long-running op in the background...

And use a **callback** upon completion to perform the next processing step.

While sometimes we'll just need to run a single background op...

In many cases, we want to chain multiple long-running background ops together into a pipeline.

This lets us accomplish more complex tasks in the background.